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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 4, 1905.

The Week.

The *Herald* of April 25 made the startling allegation in its news columns that Mr. Herbert Bowen, the United States Minister to Venezuela, had preferred a very serious charge of personal corruption against Assistant Secretary of State Loomis. In brief, according to this account, Mr. Bowen found himself estopped from further proceedings in the matter of the asphalt case now before the Venezuelan Supreme Court because President Castro possesses a check for \$10,000 paid by the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company to Mr. Loomis while he was representing the United States. It was further alleged that this is only a part of the money given to him by that company, and that details of the scandal have been sent to all the chancelleries of Europe by the foreign diplomats at Venezuela. Still further allegations were to the effect that Mr. Loomis bought up a claim against the Venezuelan Government for a small sum and then used his official position to collect it; also, that Mr. Loomis contracted to bring about a settlement of a Venezuelan debt of ten millions, in return for which he was to receive about \$1,400,000. Mr. Loomis's categorical denial of these charges clearly placed upon the diplomat the duty of proving his case or retiring from the service. He has accordingly been recalled for that purpose by Secretary Taft, and it seems unlikely in any event that he will return to his post.

The strike of the Chicago teamsters presents the usual incongruity between the smooth official deliverances and the lawless, non-official acts of a desperate body of would-be job-monopolizers. The Chicago Federation of Labor, by formal resolve, has requested President, Governor, and Mayor to "investigate existing conditions in Chicago" before complying with any request made for military protection. If the striking teamsters can win by peaceably withholding their service, there is nothing standing in the way of their success. A regiment under arms on every thoroughfare could not prevent the teamsters from winning, provided there is not an adequate supply of teamsters to be had outside the unions. The real reason for their expressed desire for official investigation before an order is given for military protection is, clearly, the fear of the unionists that without violence they must lose their fight. The shooting of the Grady brothers on Sun-

day on the suspicion that they were connected with an obnoxious firm of employers, and the killing of Peter Klausen who was guilty of the crime of driving his own wagon, point significantly to the real cause for the union protest against military protection. The pathetic report of Mayor Dunne's "peace committee" would seem to imply that the employers are more obdurate than the teamsters in refusing to assent to arbitration. The unions are quite willing, according to the peace committee, to submit the controversy "to persons commanding the respect and confidence of the community." If the unionists, after killing several such persons, are willing to submit the controversy to others of the same class, the magnanimity of the unions certainly deserves the highest laudation.

The new arbitration agreement adopted in the building trades of this city appears to be a victory for the unions. The plan which it supersedes ignored practically all their rights. It was arbitration only in name. The unions were not consulted when it was framed, and had little to do with its enforcement. Nominally, it provided for the arbitration of all labor disputes, but the machinery was carefully kept in the employers' hands. Thus, the old arbitration board had a permanent secretary, but his salary was paid by the employers, and his office was at the headquarters of the Employers' Association. It is not strange that such "arbitration," instead of permanently settling labor disputes, should have constantly fomented them. The new plan is the result of the joint deliberation of unions and employers. Provision is made for a general arbitration board, whose office shall be on neutral territory, the expense to be shared equally by masters and men. The fight now ended was largely between the employers and the walking delegates. The old arbitration treaty, it was said, would end the rule of the Parkers and the Weinselmers. Hence, it was specifically provided that "business agents" should not serve on the arbitration boards. In the new plan, however, that clause is omitted. A new section declares that "business agents of the unions, parties to this plan, shall be permitted to enter all shops, buildings, or structures" under the jurisdiction of the association.

This is not the only ominous feature. The real issue involved in the recent struggle was whether building in New York was to be monopolized by certain employers on one hand and certain unions on the other, or whether the old system of unfettered competition

was to prevail. It was a question not only of the closed shop, but of the closed industry and the closed city. In specific terms, the old arbitration treaty provided that employers should hire only of those unions which were parties to it, and that all agreements existing between the men and contractors should continue inviolate. These latter agreements, it was no secret, assured monopolies on both sides—the bosses promising to employ only certain men; the men, in turn, to work only for certain employers. The matter is put not quite so bluntly in the new plan. The employers, however, promise to employ only union men, and numerous other stipulations make it clear that only those unions which are parties to the agreement are intended. New unions, too, are to be admitted only by the consent of the general arbitration board, or as the result of a special arbitration proceeding. Labor conditions in the building trades are reported improved, but not much encouragement is to be drawn from this new plan, which means the return of the walking delegate.

Mr. Carnegie's great fund for pensioning professors is characteristic of the donor in that it makes for efficiency. No one with the slightest acquaintance with college life can have failed to note the number of professors, worn out in the service and long past their highest usefulness, who continue on sufferance simply because, without their salary, their provision for old age is inadequate. The handling of such cases is one of the most difficult points of college management, for kindness to the superannuated professor frequently means lowering the whole tone of instruction. Mr. Carnegie's fund, which he placed in the hands of a large committee of college presidents, aided by a handful of financiers, changes the situation completely. The annual income of \$500,000 will provide annuities, or supplement existing ones, for about three hundred beneficiaries. And since State and sectarian colleges are expressly excluded from the deed of gift, this will provide an average of, say, two retiring pensions for each eligible college. But by no means every professor should be retired at sixty-five, the age contemplated by the donor; nor does every superannuated professor need a stipend. Accordingly, the provision is much more adequate to the need than the statistics might seem to indicate. Furthermore, figures have rather little to do with the case; the presence of a single inefficient professor may mean that an entire department is demoralized, and that a quarter of the instruction afforded to successive classes is worthless. The terms of Mr. Carnegie's

letter show that, while he had efficiency chiefly in mind, he was by no means oblivious to the pathos of lives broken in the drudgery of the classroom, and maintained in relative penury by salaries no longer earned.

In giving his reasons for vetoing the bill depriving the Board of Aldermen of the right to pass upon franchises, Mayor McClellan has made very skilful use of the arguments at his command. His hot attack upon the Pennsylvania Railroad is not without foundation. It is, indeed, regrettable that such radical legislation should have emanated from the office of the Pennsylvania's counsel. Moreover, we have another case of hasty resort to some new governmental device just as soon as one portion of our legislative machinery fails to work smoothly. The Mayor is quite correct in saying that the evil influences which have been brought to bear upon the Aldermen will now be focussed upon the Board of Estimate. His contention that a large body is safer than a small one in such matters is not, however, sound. Public opinion can be concentrated more directly upon a mayor, a comptroller, or a borough president than upon the alderman of an outlying district. Mr. McClellan stands on firmer ground when he argues that the better way to correct misconduct on the part of officeholders is by improving their character rather than by stripping them of power. The achievements of the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago are in point here. It is to be noted, however, that there is no evidence that the Pennsylvania has attained its ends by the use of money, while there was a genuine public demand for the change outside of the railroad's offices.

Mr. Bonaparte's references, at the dinner of the National Municipal League on Friday night, to the childlike faith with which we Americans turn with eternal hopefulness to one cure-all after another to heal our municipal sores, ring singularly in unison with the Mayor's protest. Dr. Adler was ready to face the awful charge of being pessimistic, and spoke the truth when he pointed out afresh that our greatest need is an enlightened public spirit, and that there are precious few signs of it. Supposing that the bulk of the business men in this city had desired the passage of the connecting-railroad franchise sufficiently to give a little time to it, does any one believe that it would have been proposed to deprive the aldermen of their franchise powers? The very slight interest taken by most of the press and the public of this city in the meetings of the Municipal League also speaks volumes. The sessions should have been largely attended. Every one familiar with American conditions

knows that upon our solving our municipal problems correctly depends the stability of our national institutions. Not only should the League have had a warmer welcome, but its membership should have been largely increased. It is doing an admirable and much-needed work, and it ought to have all the money and members it needs.

In reporting unanimously for the removal of Justice Warren B. Hooker, the Assembly Judiciary Committee has followed the only course really open to it. No one can longer doubt that he has been guilty of conspiring to defraud the Federal Government and of other irregularities which prove him unfit for the bench. The evidence has been carefully reviewed by the grievance committee of the State Bar Association and by the Assembly committee, and each of these bodies has found against him. Two members of the Assembly committee hesitated, not because they regard Hooker as innocent, but because they are not sure that Section 6 of Article xi. of the Constitution applies to this case. Justice Hooker can gain nothing by contesting the decision against him. Through political influence he might be able to muster a few legislators to his support, but their votes could not save him. By quibbling he might secure a respite, but in the long run the courts are bound to hold that the Legislature has power to remove a justice who—whatever may be said in defence of his rulings—is personally corrupt.

By the appointment of Mr. C. F. McKim and Mr. Thomas Hastings as professors, the School of Architecture of Columbia University assumes a more distinctly professional character. These eminent architects will conduct ateliers in which the students will work on problems simulating those that confront the architect in practice. Evidently, this sort of training is to an architect what clinical experience is to a physician, and it has been a weakness of the Columbia course hitherto that, though excellently equipped in the history and theory of architecture, it has not had adequate facilities for exercises of a practical sort. The innovation, then, is by no means a renunciation of the former policy of the school; it is merely an improvement along lines of demonstrated usefulness. This reform is of more than architectural interest, because the two ateliers may be the forerunners of a new school of art. If the alliance now under discussion is effected, the schools of painting, sculpture, and engraving now conducted by the National Academy of Design will come under the jurisdiction of Columbia, and the classes will run parallel with those in architecture. We have already pointed out that the training of professional artists along

side of candidates for the traditional academic degrees is an anomaly in education. The plan, however, must be judged on its merits and by its fruits. We desire only to add that the success of an architectural school as a university department by no means promises that of schools of painting or sculpture.

"I have little faith in restrictive legislation of any kind, but very great faith in the removal of the cause," said ex-Gov. Garvin of Rhode Island a few days ago to a Springfield audience in a speech on "Corruption in American Politics, with Remedy." He cited, as an illustration of the loopholes to be found in any restrictive law, the "Tasmanian dodge" to cheat the Australian ballot: A specimen or imitation ballot is secured and given to a voter, marked as desired. The voter casts his marked ballot and returns to deliver over to the party worker the unmarked ballot given him by the election officers. The party healer marks this and sends a second voter in. Thus a chain of voters is started, each of whom is bound to "deliver the goods." Dr. Garvin proposes to remove the temptation to buy votes by the establishment of larger election districts. "In a word," he said, "there should be a general ticket for the whole city [in the case of a municipal election], and each elector should be allowed to vote for but one person, making his choice from the entire list of candidates." He believes that popular candidates would then be sure of election without resorting to bribery.

One Southern editor has, as he himself confesses, obtained some idea "of the narrowness which goes with ignorant [color] prejudice, and which makes the discussion and the solution of the race problem so difficult in the Southern States." He is Desha Breckinridge of the Lexington (Ky.) *Herald*, son of the late Col. W. C. P. Breckinridge. Writing as an unbiased editor should, Mr. Breckinridge commended the selection of Dr. Hunter, a high-minded and able colored physician, as a delegate from Lexington to the tuberculosis convention in Atlanta, and also urged his appointment as a member of the local Board of Health. Mr. Breckinridge promptly heard from the "please-stop-my-subscription" reader with whom all editors are acquainted. This one told Mr. Breckinridge that he was surprised and astonished at any Kentuckian holding such views or daring to express them. To this the editor replied in an editorial breathing the characteristic fire and vigor of his family, and declaring that, as long as he had any subscribers, he would express what he felt on this or any other question, and those who did not like it might cancel their

subscriptions as speedily as possible. More than that, Mr. Breckinridge flatly averred that "there is no higher duty the white man owes his own race than the duty of doing all within his power to aid the negro race." Finally, the editor treasonably declared that Dr. Hunter is a more valuable member of the community than the white man who protested.

In the ordinary way of business, the Insular Bureau announces to American sculptors the opportunity to compete for a monument to José Rizal. His fellow-countrymen have raised a great subscription in order that the figure of their typical patriot may always be seen in Manila, and, with a spirit worthy of him whom they would commemorate, they seek simply the best artist for the work. Art, unfortunately, knows little of national metes and bounds, or there would be a certain incongruity in a compatriot of Otis and Lawton perpetuating the memory of the poet-reformer. José Rizal, by his education, represented the fine flower of European culture. Moreover, nothing could have more effectually saddened the dreams he entertained of a gradual progress for his countrymen than the spectacle of rulers come from the land of liberty who exceed even the proscription of the Spanish régime. Thus the visible presence of Rizal in Manila will be at once a condemnation of those who seized the islands out of greed, and a rebuke to those who so despair of his people as to seek to keep them in indefinite tutelage. An American sculptor with a sense of irony and pathos could ask no more complex and yet alluring subject than a statue of Rizal to dominate Luzon as she has been Americanized.

For five years we have had the tariff treatment of a most favored nation at Germany's hand—a privilege that is to terminate upon notification less than a year from now. Then the revised customs schedules, which are in the main higher than before, will be applied in their full severity to our exports. On the part of Germany this marks the withdrawal of a one-sided concession made in the hope of a comprehensive reciprocity treaty. Naturally, Germany is mindful of the fate of the other reciprocity conventions, which still sleep in the Senate pigeonholes. And now, as she goes upon a higher tariff basis, and makes reciprocity treaties with all the Central European Powers, she declines to hold out longer to us a hand we have shown no disposition to take. That the effect upon our export trade to Germany must be disastrous, will be evident upon an examination of the new maximum duties. The duty on wheat, for example, has been raised by 57 per cent. Of wheat we sent over in the year

ending June, 1904, 7,490,648 bushels, of a value a little less than six million dollars. The possibilities of this trade are shown by the figures of 1902—19,725,674 bushels, valued at nearly fifteen million dollars. What will become of this trade when the wheat fields of Russia and Austria-Hungary receive a tariff preference may readily be imagined. The American hog has always been a sufferer in Germany; under the new schedules the persecution of that noble beast is intensified threefold. In 1904 our exportation of hog products, in spite of vexatious discrimination on alleged sanitary grounds, considerably exceeded \$18,000,000. In 1906 we shall have to face a duty raised from an average of 5 to a minimum of 12.50 marks on every imported porker, with corresponding increases on butcher and kettle products. We have indicated merely two points at which our trade is menaced. Unquestionably there will be bitter complaint when the pinch is actually felt, and recriminations against any insolent foreign application of our own tariff medicine to our own case. The more reasonable attitude will be to recall that the agrarian lobby is doing in Germany precisely what the manufacturing lobby is doing here; and, finally, that the damage is not beyond repair, for Chancellor Bülow professes entire willingness to negotiate a new convention. In any case, reproach of a Reichstag revising the tariff up would lie very ill in the mouths of Senatorial stand-patters.

Frankness and even a studied insolence, as Lord Robert Cecil maintained long before he became a foreign minister himself, have their place as auxiliaries of diplomacy, but it is a question if these qualities have ever been so lavishly used in a minor controversy as now, by Germany, in the case of Morocco. Certainly, the interview imputed to Count von Tattenbach-Ascoli, chief of the special mission to Fez, is hardly exemplified for offensive plain speaking. He complains of an international conspiracy against German trade, protests in especial against the British tariff preference in South Africa—a slap direct at Downing Street; asserts that there is "an attempt to introduce the same policy [of discrimination] in Morocco"—a charge of bad faith against both France and England; finally, proclaims the integrity of the Sultanate, and invites his Shereefan Majesty to call an international conference—a deliberate attempt to set aside the Anglo-French agreement. This inflammatory utterance may be only an individual indiscretion. If so, Count von Tattenbach-Ascoli should be recalled. If he is not, it will be an indication that the Kaiser means mischief in Morocco, and that the clamor for the open door is only a pretext for malign political activities.

Conflicts between the Turkish garrisons of Western Arabia and the desert tribes are of constant recurrence, and the present disorders are exceptional only in their degree and because they fall in a time when the international balance in Asia is wavering. The Sultan's tenure of the coast strip is of the flimsiest, as is shown by the capture, after something like a regular siege, of the capital of the province of Yemen. In fact, the Sultan retains possession of the littoral chiefly because England is unwilling, until forced, to handle so turbulent a population. There are also strong sentimental reasons for leaving Mecca nominally in the hands of the greatest Muslim potentate. So far there is no news indicating that England will depart from her policy of abstention. Secure in the possession of Aden, at the mouth of the Red Sea, she has just experienced in Somaliland the expense of bringing wild tribes to terms. As before, the Sultan will probably be left to handle his rebels in his own way. Only a serious assertion of foreign pretensions would stir Downing Street, and this, in spite of the Moroccan manœuvres of the Kaiser and the visit of the Shah to St. Petersburg, is as yet only a remote possibility.

The Constitution now offered to the Transvaal, three years after the signing of the treaty of peace at Vereeniging, falls far short of the expectations of that treaty. It is the political legacy of Lord Milner, and proves that his administration can have little furthered the work of conciliation. Suspicion appears in every stipulation of the new Constitution. The Transvaal is not to control its own finances. In this matter the Governor enjoys exclusively the initiative. Nor will this nominally self-governing colony even fix the conditions of the franchise. Former burghers have the right to vote, and white male persons of British birth possessing \$500 or paying \$50 rent; but no legislation granting privileges or imposing disabilities upon the blacks is valid without the consent of the Home Government. The Volksraad itself is small, consisting of some thirty elected members, besides some nine official members, who should easily dominate its proceedings. Such is the self-government which England deems it safe to extend to Oom Paul's people. In fairness it should be said that the Colonial Office regards this concession merely as a beginning. Mr. Alfred Lyttelton promises a greater measure of liberty when the wounds of war shall have been more fully healed. This statement should be regarded as the answer to Gen. Cronje's charge of perfidy. In fact, the pledge of self-government made in the treaty of peace was cautiously guarded as to times and seasons, in mindfulness of the dear cost of the colony.

OUR FISCAL DILEMMA.

As the fiscal year approaches its close, the Republican leaders are manifesting no little anxiety about the growing deficit. Secretary Shaw's official estimate of it was \$18,000,000, but it is already \$30,000,000, and there are still two months and more before the final figures can be known with certainty. Even if the estimate of the Actuary of the Treasury should prove correct, and judicious timing of disbursements should somewhat curtail the magnitude of the deficit, "the little gap between the pants and the vest" is not officially expected to be below the \$23,000,000 mark. It is all very well for Mr. Shaw to make a brave face at the wry figures, and to speak of it "as of small moment" to "a great and prosperous Government"; but the truth is, there is no way for a party whose stock in trade is its alleged capacity for successful finance, to maintain its prestige with the people unless it can make both ends meet. And the problem of making the blanket of revenue cover the bed of expenditure is causing some strenuous tugging at the fiscal bed-clothes.

The causes of the deficit are too well known to need more than passing mention. First of all is the swollen expenditure necessitated primarily by the militant policy of the Administration. Gunpowder, guns, and battleships cost money, and in the end the cost of glory, as Sydney Smith reminded his countrymen, is taxes. Besides the exorbitant outlay caused by our strenuous foreign policy, the Dingley tariff wall is so high as to cut down seriously the influx of imported goods. The total tariff revenue is a product of two factors, the volume of dutiable imports multiplied into the average rate of duty. The fact that the Dingley tariff makes the last factor high, operates also to make the first factor far smaller than it would otherwise be. The result is a smaller product in terms of revenue than might result from a lower rate of duty. Swift's dictum that in the arithmetic of the customs two and two do not always make four, but sometimes only one, is admirably exemplified in our case.

In the abstract the remedy for the situation is simplicity itself, but in the concrete circumstances a teasing puzzle. Curtailment of expenditure would be the dictate of a prudent individual who discovered he was spending more than his income. But it has long been Republican doctrine that what would be prudent in the case of a frugal private household becomes folly when applied to the affairs of "a great and prosperous nation." The Republican leaders on all hands are at least agreed on this, that the remedy for the situation is to be found not in curtailed expenses, but in increased taxation. But here the limit of agreement is reached, and the financial wise-*acres* split into two factions, one de-

manding an overhauling of the Dingley tariff, the other the opening up of new sources of revenue in the shape of import duties on tea and coffee, or additional taxes on beer and spirits.

This alternative offers grave difficulties to the Administration from a tactical partisan standpoint. The "stand-patters," with Mr. Shaw at their head, supported by such financial lights as Speaker Cannon, Mr. Payne, and Mr. Grosvenor, stand aghast at laying impious hands on the sacred Dingley schedules. "The disturbance of business conditions" has been so long a choice arrow in the quiver of the protectionist archers that they regard it as little less than suicidal to make a present of this poisoned shaft to their political adversaries. The longer heads on the Senate Committee on Finance, such as Allison, Aldrich, Burrows, and Spooner, know that the outcry against "tampering with the tariff" is one of those common arguments convenient on the hustings, but not binding on practical financiers. As against the "stand-patters," the "friendly revisers" have this advantage, that they could trim out some of the obsolete schedules that are absolutely prohibitive, and then pose as champions of the consumer. The Aldrich crowd is also shrewd enough to perceive how widespread and deep-seated is the public irritation at schedules which allow Trusts, while extorting monopoly prices at home, to dump their surplus output on foreign markets at lower prices.

The revisionists may also point out that the plan of Mr. Shaw to impose duties on tea and coffee would sin against another cardinal catchword of the traditional Republican policy—namely, "the free breakfast-table." This hypocritical plea has more than once availed to keep protective abuses intact when a surplus threatened the Treasury. If the laborer is not only to taste the tariff in his sugar as at present, but to catch its flavor in his tea and coffee, what becomes of the protestation that the Republican ægis is over the board of the workingman? If beer is selected to bear the additional tax burden, the campaign check of the brewer is jeopardized, and the cohorts of Gambrinus are challenged.

It is really very hard that a Government cannot devise some scheme analogous to Thackeray's plan for the individual on "How to live on nothing a year." The Republican plight is indeed piteous. Whither shall they go from perplexity? or whither shall they flee from factional difference? If they ascend up into the heaven of the Dingley schedules, plagues are there; if they make their bed in the hell of taxes on consumption, behold they are there. If they take the wings of the morning coffee-cup and dwell on the tax-yielding powers of tea, even there shall discord lead them

and a tight hand shall hold them. Fortune it is for the Republicans that they are confronted with their fiscal worries in a time of general industrial activity. Let a reaction in trade set in and the deficit which now disturbs their dreams will haunt their waking hours. Such a calamity, it is to be hoped, we may avoid for years to come. But Fate has more than once proved a jester, and what a sorry ending it would be to the present Administration to go out amid execrating cries of "the Roosevelt deficit," or, worse yet, "Roosevelt soup-houses."

A CHECK TO UNION TYRANNY.

The recent decision of the Supreme Court in the case of *Lochner versus New York* is of far-reaching importance. *Lochner* had originally been convicted in the Oneida County Court of a misdemeanor in employing in his bake-shop an employee for more than sixty hours in one week. By section 110 of the so-called Labor law of this State it is forbidden to either employer or employee in the bakery business to contract for more than sixty hours' labor per individual per week. *Lochner's* conviction on appeal was reaffirmed, first by the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, Fourth Division, and again by the Court of Appeals. The case was finally brought before the Supreme Court of the United States, which reversed the previous decisions on the ground that the aforesaid section, No. 110, is unconstitutional as denying the right of contract, and so violating the liberty of the individual guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment. The final adjudication of the case checks the insidious advance of union tyranny hitherto made under the cloak of the police powers of the State. The decision is also a tonic revindication of the doctrine of individual liberty.

To appreciate the scope and bearings of the decision several important circumstances must be borne in mind. The set of the current of speculation and legislation has for many years been against the doctrine of individual liberty in industry. The Janus-faced attitude of thinkers a decade or two ago was indicated by the Duke of Argyll's dictum that the two great discoveries in government during the nineteenth century were the harmfulness of restrictions on trade and the necessity of restrictions upon labor. This cautious discrimination among doctrinaires soon yielded to the jauntier aphorism—"When in doubt, kick Cobden." Consequently the factory laws were read as a burial service over the doctrine of *laissez faire*; and, except for Herbert Spencer and a few other old fogies, the imprescriptible rights of the individual were lost sight of in the solicitous anxiety manifested for the health of "social tissue."

This situation created an opportunity of which labor unions quickly availed themselves. The State had already intervened on behalf of women and children, and had rightly limited the conditions under which they might labor. Partly on the ground that adult male workers were also the wards of the State, and partly on the ground of preserving the public health and morals, a vast number of similar statutes was enacted. Overcrowding, defective ventilation, insufficient sunlight, inadequate fire escapes, and poorly screened machinery typified the most plausible and least injurious forms of this legislation. The eight-hour day for public employees and for miners and other workers in extra-hazardous industries served as a wedge by which the unions sought to lay down the conditions under which all toil might be performed. To the same class of questionable laws belonged those which prescribed certificates of competence for an ever-growing class of workers. Even janitors of apartment houses, barbers, and blacksmiths have been included in this category. The police power of the State had been stretched in many of these instances to warrant restrictions upon the adult male individual's right to sell his labor when, where, and as he would.

The bakery case practically forced a sharp alternative on the Supreme Court. It had either to lie down and allow these barely disguised attempts at union tyranny to walk over it roughshod, or to bring up the unions and their subservient legislatures with a short turn. The majority of the court chose the latter course. After dissipating the hazy and attenuated contention that the object of the law was the preservation of the public health, Mr. Justice Peckham says bluntly: "Statutes of the nature of that under review, limiting the hours in which grown and intelligent men may labor to earn their living, are mere meddlesome interferences with the rights of the individual. . . ." This sounds for all the world like Adam Smith in 'The Wealth of Nations,' where he says: "The patrimony of a poor man lies in the strength and dexterity of his hands, and to hinder him from employing this strength and dexterity in what manner he thinks proper, without injury to his neighbor, is a plain violation of this most sacred property. It is a manifest encroachment upon the just liberty both of the workman and of those who might be disposed to employ him."

The dissenting opinion by Mr. Justice Harlan is founded upon the assumption that "this statute was enacted in order to protect the physical well-being of those who work in bakery and confectionery establishments." How unsubstantial this assumption is can best be shown from the majority opinion, which cites the other sections of the law providing for the most careful construction,

drainage, ventilation, plumbing, and inspection of bakeries. A gleam of humor is imparted by the very minuteness of these provisions, which decree *inter alia* that "no domestic animals, except cats, shall be allowed to remain in a room used as a biscuit, bread, pie, or cake bakery." "There can be no fair doubt," says Mr. Justice Peckham, "that the trade of a baker, in and of itself, is not an unhealthy one to that degree which would authorize the Legislature to interfere with the right to labor, and with the right of free contract on the part of the individual, either as employer or employee."

The main effect of the decision, as has been pointed out, will be to stop the subterfuge by which, under the pretext of conserving the public health, the unionists have sought to delimit the competition of non-unionists, and so to establish a quasi-monopoly of many important kinds of labor. But the decision suggests one or two curious queries to the lay mind. Should we have been at the absolute mercy of the unions if the Fourteenth Amendment had never been adopted? Another puzzle connects itself with the closeness of the decision—5 to 4: how is the attitude of the individual judges to be explained? On the old theory of the Roman jurists that the law is the embodiment of the Universal Reason, such an inquiry would smack of the profane. But along the lines of the more mundane theory of Mr. Pickwick's counsel that "a good, contented, well-breakfasted juryman is a capital thing to get hold of," an explanation may be ventured. Mr. White, the only Democrat in the minority, was perhaps influenced by the States Rights contention that it falls properly within the competence of the State, and not the Federal, Government to determine the conditions of employment. The rest of the dissenting justices were doubtless swayed by their general inclination towards paternalism.

THE NAVY AS A BUSINESS ORGANIZATION.

Rear-Admiral Stephen B. Luce has contributed to the *Proceedings of the Naval Institute* a criticism of "The Department of the Navy" which should be read by all those who are convinced that State or municipal ownership of railroads and other industries is the cure-all for our latter-day political evils. The Navy Department is to a large degree in business. It is not only manufacturing warships of all sizes, but is doing a very large repairing business at its dozen or more shipyards. It employs thousands upon thousands of skilled laborers, giving them a short working day and the best possible treatment. Moreover, its officers are noted for their integrity and high character. "Grafting" is generally believed to be confined within the smallest possible

limits, and as a commercial organization the Department is free from the unpleasant features accompanying industrial competition. In repairs alone it can count on an enormous business annually, and one that grows automatically as our fleet increases. It is estimated at eight millions of dollars for the fiscal year 1905-6.

Obviously, the history of the Navy Department affords an unexcelled opportunity to see just how the Government conducts a strictly business enterprise. What is the record? Rear-Admiral Luce, who has been in the service since 1841, has no difficulty in showing from official reports that the entire business organization of the navy has been and is wholly unbusinesslike, wasteful, and extravagant. Not only is the responsibility divided among eight bureau chiefs, but those officers work in the main independently of each other, with the result that no one person, least of all the Secretary, can be held responsible for the efficient dispatch of business. The Secretary himself, generally a lawyer, is usually helpless in the hands of the bureau chiefs, whose discussions, when it comes to planning new ships, seem often endless. Some Secretaries have struggled to bring about a better state of affairs; others have given it up as useless. Secretary Whitney was one of the former. He was scandalized by the conditions he discovered on assuming office in 1885. He declared that over seventy-five millions of dollars had been expended "on the construction, repair, equipment, and ordnance of vessels, which sum, with a very slight exception, has been substantially thrown away." To illustrate the "folly of the Department," Mr. Whitney showed how the *Omaha*, an obsolete wooden vessel, had been rebuilt at a cost that would have paid for a fine steel cruiser. The whole record he declared to be "one of mismanagement, of wasteful expenditure, of injudicious and ill-advised disposition of public moneys."

Despite Mr. Whitney's just indignation, only one reform was accomplished beyond the purification of the navy yards and the ending of much wasteful expenditure. The Department's business methods were improved by placing the purchases of the several departments in the hands of the Paymaster-General. Up to that time each bureau chief himself bought what was needed—a policy that would have wrecked any private corporation in short order. But the bureau system remained to vex Secretary Tracy, who reported in 1889 that "the details of administering the navy, as an existing force, its vessels in commission, its officers, and its crews, were scattered, without system or coherence, among a variety of officers, bureaus, and boards." He found cases where ships had received simultaneous orders from three different bureaus which were so directly contra-

dictory as to be impossible of execution. Naturally, there was "delay, confusion, changes of plan, and additional expense," precisely as is the case to-day. Mr. Tracy instituted a board of construction, but even with this improvement it happened that the hulls of the monitors *Puritan* and *Terror* were rebuilt by one bureau while their antiquated and worn-out engines were allowed to remain by another, with the result that two otherwise splendid vessels were practically useless in the Spanish war.

Fourteen years later, in 1903, another Secretary, W. H. Moody, repeated the criticisms of twenty-five years ago, and expressed his dissatisfaction at finding eight bureaus working independently and unrelated to one another. For these evils, Rear-Admiral Luce has his own remedy, with which we shall not concern ourselves here. We would merely bring out that, after twenty years of agitation, the Navy Department is still organized in such a way as to make efficient and economical conduct of its business affairs impossible. By concentrating all its efforts it has, it is true, succeeded in constructing the battleship *Connecticut* at the Brooklyn navy yard about as fast as the *Louisiana*, which is being built at Newport News by a private company. But when the Department called in expert electrical engineers—from civil life—to advise it about the consolidation of the power plants at its navy yards, it was found that the establishment of one central station would save the Government \$30,000 a year at the New York yard alone. It is needless to say that if that shipyard had been privately owned the consolidation would have been made years ago.

Exactly the same condition of affairs exists in the army. Not even Mr. Root could bring about a consolidation of the four separate bureaus which pay the troops, supply their food, their cooking utensils, and their clothing. Yet to this malorganization of the War Department more than to anything else was due the sad waste of life, the disgraceful confusion and disorder of our brief war in 1898. The same vicious system remains to-day, improved only by the creation of a General Staff. Government works everywhere are wasteful and extravagant, even where there is no corruption. A contractor of wide experience remarked the other day that he would undertake the construction of the Panama Canal at what it would cost the Government to do the work, and make a handsome profit. If the United States Government cannot conduct its business affairs any better than this, what prospect is there that such municipal governments as those of Chicago and New York could do as well in the lighting or transportation fields?

THE THEATRE TRUST ON VIEW.

Comparatively few persons, probably, outside "the profession," have taken the trouble to wade through the testimony in the undignified theatrical lawsuit which was concluded last week before Justice Fitzgerald in the Supreme Court after a considerable number of sittings. To the ordinary layman a good deal of it must have seemed nearly unintelligible and wholly uninteresting, unless he happened to be a partisan of either of the disputants. And yet the matter was one in which everybody having any interest in the theatre, and indirectly the public at large, is deeply concerned.

Not, indeed, in the rights and wrongs of the particular case under consideration. The questions whether or not a partnership existed between two rival managers, whether one or the other got more or less than his own proper share of the profits, or whether there has or has not been double dealing, may be left to the law for a decision which will affect only the contestants. But when the very existence of the theatre, as a reputable and artistic institution, is seen to be threatened by a system which deprives it of growth while exhausting its energies, there is sound reason for public anxiety. The revelations made in the court proceedings touching the nature and operations of the various syndicates in the Theatrical Trust contained nothing that was new to the initiated. All along it had been known that the primary object of the organization was the establishment of a high protective monopoly, the concentration of the management of the theatrical show business of the country in the hands of a small speculative group, and the abolition of anything like successful competition. But few, except those immediately affected, realized how completely that object had been attained, until it became the subject of legal investigation.

Without pretending to divine the exact truth in a mass of confusing, muddled, and contradictory evidence, it is possible to grasp certain salient facts. First, practically all the best theatres in all cities and towns of considerable size in this country—the few exceptions are not enough to modify the general situation—are controlled by a close corporation. No independent manager can occupy one of them without submitting to terms which must strip him, even in the most favorable conditions, of nearly all his profits. If he will not concede them, he must either take his attraction to an inferior house or build a new one. In the next place, the Trust, having capital and credit, is able to secure the American rights of all the most promising works by the leading foreign dramatists, and thus minimize the risk of production. These are almost sufficient to supply the theatres in their vast circuit and are moved on in rotation from city

to city until their drawing powers are exhausted. When there are not enough foreign plays to go round, the deficiency is supplied by a few domestic playwrights who have been fortunate enough to enjoy the confidence of the syndicate since its inception. For outsiders there is very little chance, simply because there is no market for them.

Thus it appears that the Trust dominates the theatres, selects the pieces that go into them, owns the men who write them, and, as a matter of course, the actors who perform in them. It is in the position of an absolute dictatorship or tyranny. Now a dictatorship of any kind, to be beneficial, must be able, wise, and benevolent. Which of these qualifications has been manifested by the administration of the Trust? What has it done for the art which it has taken under its tutelage? By its policy of enforced long runs, it has almost stopped the production of capable actors. By its artificial creation of stage reputations, it has grossly debased all former standards of acting. By its prolonged neglect of the imaginative and literary drama it has made the proper performance of it almost impossible. There is not to-day a single first-class actor of tragedy or of the older comedy in the country. Such sound, all-round players as remain to us are survivors of a preceding generation. The vast majority of our younger and even of our middle-aged performers can neither move nor speak except after the manner of their personal and daily habits, simply because they have had no incentive to learn even the rudiments of histrionics. Elocution is almost a lost art, actual impersonation is scarcely dreamed of. The very meaning of the word "interpretation" seems to be unknown.

Undoubtedly the dictatorship has exhibited one kind of ability—the capacity to organize and execute a scheme for killing opposition, reducing expenses, and monopolizing the profits. Credible report says that the prominent members of it are rich. That, fortunately, is no proof of the permanent success of their system. Their intellectual and moral calibre has been exposed mercilessly in this court squabble. It is plain that their one motive has been that of immediate gain by the crudest and most short-sighted methods. They have had no thought of the interests either of theatrical art or of the theatrical profession; or of anything save the accumulation of money. But to achieve this end they are surely but slowly killing the goose that lays the golden eggs, by alienating the public on which they depend. Sooner or later there will be a crash, and a new and wholesome theatre will arise slowly from the ruins.

If there were no other question involved than that of a commercial failure, the end might be awaited with pa-

tierce. But, unhappily, the condition of the theatre—an institution which can never be wholly suppressed—is a matter of the gravest public importance. Whatever may be its powers for good—and its devout supporters believe that it ought to be and might be, as the embodiment of all the arts, one of the most potent educational influences in a well-organized state—there can be no question concerning its infinite potentialities for mischief. It is monstrous that in a country in the forefront of civilization it should be merely a speculative device for money-making, a commercial pander to the lower instincts of humanity. From year to year it is becoming more inane in its trivialities, more audacious in its indecencies, until a latter-day comedy is as unclean in spirit as some of the Restoration pieces. No other result could be expected from the directorate of a body of men anxious only to please the majority, uninfluenced by artistic sense or aspirations, and quite unconscious of public responsibility.

MONEY FOR SMALL COLLEGES.

The small colleges are just now attracting much attention from professional philanthropists—a term which Andrew Carnegie would bitterly resent. Following Mr. Carnegie's announcement that the slackening demand for libraries has forced him to the small college as an outlet for his accumulating millions, F. K. Pearsons of Chicago has just announced gifts aggregating \$135,000 to five small Southern colleges. He had previously said that he would "pick out the very poorest and most worthy." Mr. Pearsons, of course, did not intend to convey the impression that poorness is a proof of worth. He has studied college administration too long and too carefully to fall a victim to that fallacy. Both he and Mr. Carnegie must be keenly aware of the fact that the cause of education would be greatly advanced if some of the smallest and poorest colleges, instead of being helped to prolong a miserable existence, were kindly chloroformed. There are parts of this country where two or three struggling colleges, occupying much the same local field, might well be merged into a single institution—still small enough to satisfy the most exacting taste.

The arguments in favor of the small college may almost be taken for granted. Not every boy is fitted by temperament or training to profit by the advantages of Harvard or Yale. For certain types of character the supervision exercised by the faculty and the more intimate community life of the small college are very wholesome. Another consideration, as Mr. Carnegie notes, is that at the big colleges sport is too generally supplanting study as the subject of chief interest. On the other hand, the small

colleges, as James Bryce has said, "set learning in a visible form, plain, indeed, and humble, but dignified even in her humility." To these advantages add simplicity of living and a thoroughly democratic spirit—commoner in the West than in the East—and you often have the ideal conditions for training a sturdy American.

But the problem of maintaining a college is not what it was fifty years ago, or even sixteen years ago, when Mr. Bryce wrote the words just quoted. The days when a few inspiring teachers and an outfit of textbooks would do the work have passed forever. Extensive libraries and laboratories must be heavily endowed in order to keep pace with the rapid progress of modern science. Thus it has come about that "universities" which were once the pride of booming Western towns are now ridiculous in everything except their aspirations. Not every thriving railway junction has developed into a Chicago that is willing and able—with subsidies from the oil, wheat, beef, and iron trades—to support a substantial seat of learning. Scores, perhaps hundreds, of colleges are now worrying along, hand to mouth, nothing but a monument to the misdirected ambitions of real-estate speculators or to the wasteful rivalry of sects.

Depressing statistics as to the conditions in the South were prepared in 1901 by Prof. E. H. Babbitt, then of Sewanee, but now of Rutgers. He worked through the catalogues of forty-four of the strongest and most enterprising colleges for white students in all of the States that belonged to the Confederacy except Virginia. He found that a few colleges had an endowment of between two and three hundred thousand dollars, a few others had half that, and many had none worth mentioning; that the average amount of instruction in a Southern college was not more than the full work of six men; and that there were probably not more than 4,000 students who could pass the standard admission requirements. In material equipment (buildings, library, laboratories), productive funds, numbers and quality of faculty, and students, the Southern colleges are, says Professor Babbitt, "pathetically poor." What is true of the South, be it remembered, is also largely true of the West, and to a certain extent of the East. In brief, "there are not students enough for the colleges, and there are too many colleges for the students."

The remedy which Professor Babbitt proposes is the remedy which we have suggested: there are, he notes, "a Methodist tree, a Baptist tree, and a Presbyterian tree, crowding one another and getting puny and unsound; where any one of them would grow into good timber if the others were sent to the woodpile." He would have

a benevolent despot, upon the advice of an expert commission, pick about twenty of the strongest institutions and equip them adequately for college work. The rest could be turned into either preparatory or scientific schools, or else entirely blotted out. This plan is, on the face of it, revolutionary; but it is none the less deserving of serious consideration. The colleges themselves will not voluntarily undertake the process of combination, differentiation, and extinction. Local, religious, and personal jealousies would be too strong, even in the celestial minds of alumni, trustees, and professors. The college that is least worthy of the name, that is in every way inferior to such academies as Exeter and Andover, is the very one which would cling most desperately to the title, would be most reluctant to relinquish its right to confer worthless degrees.

Thus the problem is complex and difficult. To persuade one institution to drop its preparatory department, another its collegiate department, a third a pretentious conservatory of music, and a fourth some flabby courses in engineering, is a task requiring both diplomacy and money. Old teachers would have to be suitably provided for, specific endowments would have to be guarded, and innumerable prejudices allayed. To accomplish these beneficent results by an appeal to right reason and pure altruism is an obvious impossibility. Money sufficient to maintain the teachers and officers already attached to the several institutions and to guarantee success after reorganization would be a *sine qua non*. Above all, time would be needed to bring men to an understanding of the benefits of proposed changes. A large fund, wisely administered for a generation or two, might help to perform miracles.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

SPRINGFIELD, April 28.

A cordial invitation from the local Biblical Club easily induced the Oriental Society to depart from its accustomed haunts and meet this year at Springfield, Mass. Hitherto the usage has been almost invariable to foregather at some university centre. Academic influence, however, is, after all, not remote from Springfield, and professors from Amherst and Smith gave the wonted collegiate touch to the hosts' genial welcome.

About the usual number of papers was presented, some by title only, as the writers were abroad. The Oriental Congress at Algiers, meeting at the same date, carried off several members, either as delegates or as unofficial representatives of the American Society. It has, happily, been a long time since the Society met deprived of so many conspicuous scholars, among whom were the President, Dr. Gilman, and President Harper, both of whom hoped to be present. Several of the forty-four papers announced thus fell out. Of the whole list of papers, nine or ten were of general character, falling into neither the Semitic nor the Aryan

pigeon-hole. One such (unfortunately read by title only) was the study of an early form of religion by Professor Toy, the first American scholar to contribute articles of value to the new "science of comparative religion." Another was Professor Jackson's solution of the names of the cities from which, Marco Polo says, the Magi came to worship the Infant Christ. Other studies especially interesting to those concerned with this subject were grouped together to be read at one session. Four of the lady members of the Society contributed papers; Miss Morris giving a continuation of her Dyak studies, Mrs. Ruutz-Rees discussing a difference in Aryan and Semitic thought, Miss Grieve speaking of some religious aspects of the plague in India, and Mrs. Mumford presenting (through Dr. Gray) an elaborate paper on the Japanese sword and its history. Problems still unsolved in Indo-Aryan cosmology were stated by Professor Warren. Professor Lanman, editor of the Harvard Oriental Series, gave an account of the history and progress of the work under his charge—how great a share of the labor in each volume falls to the editor in such a publication few perhaps stop to realize—and also made a short address on the lessons to be learned by the West from the East. A graphic description of the sacred tree usually ascribed to the Assyrians, by Dr. Ward, proved of equal interest to Semitic and non-Semitic auditors at the "Religious Section," and (since all claim the Hebrew heritage) the same may be said of Prof. H. Preserved Smith's paper on Hebrew polytheism.

The Mohammedans appear to have a special facility in developing weird forms of Biblical and Persian tales, an instance of which was shown in the paper by Professor Torrey on "Og, King of Bashan" in Mohammedan legend, the only essay in this field presented at the Meeting. Several descriptive papers swelled the number of Semitic contributions. Professor Prince, in conjunction with the Rev. Mr. Robert Lau, gave an account of the Pierpont Morgan axehead, a Babylonian relic; and Professor Barton had a paper on some inscribed objects in the collection of Mr. Herbert Clark. Palmyrene tesserae and Palmyrene inscriptions in the Metropolitan Museum were the subjects of papers by Dr. Spoer and Dr. Arnold, respectively. Only one paper touched on China, a discussion of traces of Babylonian influence, by Dr. Carus. Egypt was represented by Professor Müller in a report on a mission for the Carnegie Institution, and by two resident members, Dr. Reisner, with an illustrated lecture on the cemetery of the First Pyramid at Gizeh, and Mr. Lythgoe, on a prehistoric cemetery at Naga ed-Dér. The Chicago University expedition to Babylonia was the subject of a paper offered but not read by Professor Harper. Interest in the Philippines was increased by means of a paper on Bisayan dialects by Dr. Blake, and one on the Mangyans by Dr. Gardner of Mindoro. The latter, a newly elected member, presented the Society with an almost unique collection of inscriptions, scratched on the outer rind of a split bamboo. This collection contains short poems and a syllabary, hitherto unknown, carefully explained in Dr. Gardner's accompanying essay on the savages (?) who thus essay literature.

Announcement of projected work was

made in several instances. The "Ancient Record Series" was announced by Dr. Breasted. Part of the 'Mir'at uz-Zamān' of Sibt Ibn ul-Jauzi will be edited, as announced by Prof. Jewett, from a MS. in the Yale University collection. Some interesting specimens of the work were read to the Society. Dr. Boiling purposes, in conjunction with Dr. von Negelein, to edit the Atharva Veda Parisistas; and Dr. Barret will soon bring out a transliteration and text edition of the first book of the famous 'Atharva Veda' of Kashmir, extant only in one precious copy. The latter scholar also discussed some Sārāda manuscripts of the Kāthaka Grhya Sūtra.

As the most "popular" paper of the Session, may be designated the brief but forcible presentation of certain facts by the Rev. Dr. Peters, whose paper was entitled simply "The Nippur Library." Dr. Peters claimed that the result of the various expeditions (as far as the determination of location of most of the tablets said to be of the Library goes) is negative; hence it is impossible to say that we have a "business section," etc., of the Nippur hill. "Our information is so imperfect," he said in conclusion, "that it is impossible to assert that these deposits made a temple library. . . . It appears to be impossible to rely upon statements made by Dr. Hilprecht unless his statements can be checked and verified by others." Despite the eager expectations of the reporters, there was no action taken by the Society in regard to the claims made on either side in the controversy concerning this subject. Great as was the interest felt by individual members of the Society in the question whether the Nippur Library is all that it is claimed to be, it was not felt that the Society as such was competent to pass on a matter still *sub judice*. Individual members of the Society, however, had no hesitation in expressing their opinion, to the effect that one cannot trust the statements made in regard to the tablets by the discoverer of the "Nippur Library." There appeared to be no one of all the Orientalists present to deny that Dr. Peters was right in his various condemnatory statements.

Turning to less exciting themes, Professor Oertel's "Contributions, Fifth Series," continued the important work on the 'Jāliniya Brāhmaṇa' with which the subscribers to the *Journal* have long been familiar. It was also a pleasure to have in Dr. Gray's new drama of Rājasekhara a continuation of the excellent work previously accomplished by the same scholar. Readers of the *Journal* may now have the rare delight of seeing "first translations" of specimens of Sanskrit drama hitherto buried, as far as the non-Sanskrit part of the Society and general public are concerned, under the incubus of titles such as "Vid-dhaśālabbhajikā," and a text to correspond. The Prākṛit text of the drama of this name formed the subject of a special paper by Mr. Haas. Drama also occasioned the "Critical Notes" by Dr. Ryder, on the better-known Hindu play called "The Play Cart," and lyric poetry inspired Dr. Spooner's study of a commentary on the "Cloud-Messenger"; while Yoga philosophy led to Dr. Woods's able discussion of the date of the 'Yoga-Bhāṣya' and of the life of Parāmartha. It is noticeable that so many papers by younger Sanskrit scholars were

concerned with Hindu belles-lettres, almost to the exclusion of the once all-absorbing topic of the Vedas; just as the Avesta at this session was barely represented by "Notes on some Persian references to Zoroaster," contributed by Dr. Yohannan (who also read a second paper on an Oriental charm) and by Professor Jackson; though the veteran Professor Mills of Oxford sent an elaborate "Pahlavi text," similar to those previously published by the same scholar.

Technical Semitic papers, in the absence of so many Semitic professors, were naturally fewer in number than usual; but Professor Lyon's "Assyriological Notes," Dr. Arnold's note on "Solomon's Horse-trade," and Dr. Blake's discussion of a Hebrew idiom, showed that the Aryans were not having it all their own way. Dr. Langdon, to complete the Semitic list, also had a learned paper, unintelligible, even in its title, to any save the initiated Babelist. Only one review was presented, by Prof. T. F. Wright, that of Dr. Peters's recent volume on the painted tombs of Marissa, discovered by Drs. Peters and Thiersch in 1902. The corresponding secretary of the Society discussed a Sanskrit text, and traced the implied myth of the Fountain of Youth in Oriental and Occidental legend.

The "milk in the cocoanut" of the general papers capable of interesting non-specialists may be condensed as follows: The Magi's three cities are Savah (southwest of Tehran), Avah (southeast of Savah), and Kashan (Cassan), "about three days' journey" from Savah in the direction of Yezd. The worship of Bel of Nippur was not, in Professor Lyon's opinion, unduly depreciated by Hammurabi in honor of Marduk, as has been maintained by Assyriologists; nor can we claim entire originality for the Code of Hammurabi. The difference in Aryan and Semitic thought emphasized by Mrs. Ruutz-Rees consists in the trend of Aryan thought being toward subjectivity, that of purely Semitic thought toward objectivity. In early Hebrew polytheism, Professor Smith said, much indirect evidence regarding the religion of Israel before the exile is to be found in the interpretation of names of people and places. Some names of gods were deliberately suppressed. Others were twisted, or retained with a harmless meaning. Professor Torrey's paper on Og described the giant as being saved from the flood and his name perpetuated as that of a mountain. The greatest harvest god of the Dyaks was shown by Miss Morris to be an exact exponent of the more civilized condition of the agricultural Dyaks as compared with the jungle Dyaks and their malevolent deities.

The Society had the pleasure of seeing, under the guidance of Mr. Smith, the admirable Japanese collection of that gentleman, to whose courtesy the Society was indebted for the use of the Art Museum in which the sessions of the Meeting were held. Dr. Gilman resigned as president of the Society, but was re-elected to serve for one year. In accepting the resignation of Mr. Van Name from the librarianship, the Society gave hearty expression to its recognition of a long term of devoted service on the part of one of its oldest members. The Society adjourned, after an unusually pleasant Session, especially favor-

ed by the weather, to meet again on April 19, 1906, at New Haven.

THE CONGRESS OF ARCHAEOLOGY.—I.

ATHENS, April 7, 1905.

The first International Congress of Archaeology has now assembled, and its work begins to-morrow. International it veritably is, since there are, among its 600-odd delegates and 200-odd associate members, representatives of all the established polities that derive through Greece their civilization from the Mediterranean area—all, excepting Spain and her former colonies. Were there but one Spanish delegate, he might stand for numerous South American communities, just as the large British contingent stands for various British colonies otherwise unrepresented. Portugal has one representative, who may be supposed to answer in the rollcall of the nations for some of the too remote communities of the Americas. Otherwise, the Western Hemisphere, so far as it has been penetrated by the energizing ideals transmitted through the Hellenic dispensation, is solely represented here by the twoscore delegates and associate members from the United States. Russia has the advantage of being close at hand, but her contingent would be smaller than ours if we deducted the Greek delegates, several of them from Odessa, once a stronghold of Hellenic activity, and never untenanted since then by Greeks. Not unnaturally, the Greek members of the Congress slightly outnumber those of any other single nationality. Practically all the representatives from Turkey (Samos, Chios, Cyprus, and Egypt come under that designation as well as Crete) should be added as of the Hellenic brotherhood. This brings the Greek membership very nearly up to one-third of the whole. From China none has appeared, nor has Japan any representative. This could hardly be otherwise, even if Tokio were less preoccupied and closer at hand.

Apart from Greeks, the Germans and the French are numerically the strongest here, being about equally represented, if Austria be distinguished from the more purely Teutonic German Empire. After Greeks, French, Germans, and English come the Italians, who have nearly sixty members present. The Russians and the Americans muster about forty each, and then comes Denmark, closely followed by Belgium and Switzerland. Holland and Sweden muster five and four respectively, Rumania sends two delegates, and even Bulgaria is not unrepresented, in spite of the desperate conflict now going on in Macedonia.

A most appropriate prologue to the execution of the official programme took place yesterday afternoon at the house of Mr. Demetrios Bikelas, the well-known president of the Society for the Distribution of Useful Knowledge, where the newly arrived delegates were hospitably received, and enjoyed their earliest opportunity of meeting a warm Athenian welcome, since all Athens stood by him to greet them. Then came an official evening reception by the rector of the University, in the fine hall familiar to frequenters of Athens. The attendance was numerous, and the prolonged presence of all the members of the royal family appropriately indicated that these constituted

authorities have the social success of the Congress at heart. Its success otherwise has been assured beforehand by the active committee of reception, upon which, among other members, are the directors of all the foreign Schools, and by that indefatigable organizer of committees and programmes, Mr. Kavvadias, whom we all have known so well for years as the director of all Greek museums and archaeological work.

To-day, the first day of the Congress, is also the Independence Day of Greece, which is always celebrated on "Lady Day," the feast of the Annunciation. Accordingly, there was at 10:30 A. M. a most imposing "Te Deum," or, rather, a doxology (since Greek and not Latin is the order of the hour). The whole town, including many scores of singing and parading school children, as well as the majority of the delegates, assembled in the Metropolitan Church, where there was a military service, attended by the King. The singing showed by its genuinely religious quality and real excellence how completely recent changes have removed the reproach of nasalitiy and lifelessness once perhaps attaching to services here. The doxology, although, of course, no part of the programme of the Archaeological Congress, certainly brought a moment of most appropriate solemnity.

At 2:30 P. M. the delegates and associate members gathered on the floor of the Parthenon to hear from their president (Diacochos), Prince Constantine. He rose in his father's presence, and read, in clear tones which made it easy to follow the modern Greek idiom used, a remarkably well-conceived allocution, declaring the Congress open. There followed a brief discourse on the progress of archaeology by the Minister of Public Instruction, M. Carapanos, known as the excavator of Dodona. M. Kavvadias then spoke feelingly in making the members free to use the museums. Both of these last speeches were in French. Next came a speech in German by Dr. Dörpfeld, who passed in review the work done at Athens and in Greece by Germans. His tribute to Ludwig Ross was peculiarly happy, as were his words about K. O. Müller, and his characterization of Ernst Curtius as the latter-day winner of an Olympian crown of immortality. Then came, in the order of their seniority of appointment as heads, Dr. Wilhelm of the Austrian Institute, Mr. Bosanquet of the British School of Classical Archaeology, and Mr. Heermance of the American School. Mr. Bosanquet was far more catholic than Dr. Dörpfeld in his tribute to workers of all nationalities. Mr. Heermance sincerely expressed the gratitude of Americans for the generosity shown in the gift of its present site to the American School of Classical Studies, and of the amenities and harmonious courtesies which have so happily characterized the intercourse between the American and the other Schools at Athens, and classed himself among the juniors who had to thank an elder generation for museums and for an established body of scientific work. He also spoke of the broadening effects upon studies at American universities produced by the School, and of the enthusiasm felt in America for Hellenic ideals. The junior head was M. Holleaux, director of the oldest established of all Athenian Schools. In an admirably conceived address, he spoke of what

Greece has been and is to France and Frenchmen, and, after a most courteous expression of gratitude to the Government of Greece, ended with two verses of Chénier. Proceedings then closed with the naming of the presidents of the seven sections into which the Congress is to be divided. Among these are Dr. Evans, MM. Collignon and Maspéro, and Profs. Percy Gardner, Wlamowitz-Moellendorff, Robert Waldstein, and J. R. Wheeler.

The day has ended with very telling illuminations, torchlight processions, and various popular demonstrations, which, although always in order on "Independence Day," have been entered into with exceptional enthusiasm because of the Congress. One feature, has, indeed, been especially added—the illumination of the whole Acropolis with Bengal lights, accompanied by fireworks. Admirably as this was managed, the effect, although curious and interesting, was not very impressive. Simpler arts are best resorted to when so unsurpassed a monument as the Parthenon, with the Propylaea and the Erechtheum, is concerned. The whiteness of newly fallen snow, with a clear sky beyond; the downward-flashing sun breaking through clouds, the brilliant moonlight of clear summer nights in Attica—these will always show the Parthenon at its best. For, with its affiliated ruins, it seems to have passed beyond the compass of human ingenuities, and to keep company with the elements which have marred its completeness only to gild it with colors requiring no enhancement.

LOUIS DYER.

Correspondence.

THE PHILIPPINE CENSUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Reference has been made in the *Nation* to the report of the census of the Philippines as giving a too favorable impression of the condition of the Filipinos, the number of women wage-earners being taken in support of the assertion. The summary issued by the Census Bureau for the use of the press contains a similar instance. From the school schedules it appears that 5 per cent. of the civilized population (350,000) is enrolled in the schools. But, under a different heading, we are told that "the number attending school, as shown by the population schedules, is 811,715. This number far exceeds the returns shown on the school schedules, probably because the calendar year does not conform to the school year." This may be a satisfactory explanation, but to the ordinary mind it is simply a cogent proof that the returns are untrustworthy. Could it be otherwise with the work of 7,500 natives, absolutely without experience and having the inaccurate Eastern mind?

B. B.

BOSTON, April 30, 1905.

JOSEPH JEFFERSON'S DEGREES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At the close of the note on Joseph Jefferson, in your issue of April 27, we read: "Mr. Jefferson received the honorary degree of A.M. from Harvard ten years

ago." Your contributor fails to say that he received the same degree from Yale three years before. ALBERT S. COOK.

YALE UNIVERSITY, April 27, 1905.

THE PROFESSOR'S WIDOW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is one application of Mr. Carnegie's wise and munificent gift which I hope is not impossible, since it seems to me the most desirable, but which is not mentioned in the donor's letter.

The professor is the chief hero on the stage, but not the real chief sufferer, in his long, serene career of honorable poverty. He is not supposed to be aware, even, that his food is plain, his shelter humble, his life monotonous. He has at least one decent suit for public occasions. The precious books which only he would open he can usually order for the college library, and even keep them, a year at a time, on his study table. But real self-effacement, silent deprivation, painful economy, are the lot of his wife. Surely, every one who is left a widow after her silver wedding-day, at any rate, has earned the half, if not the whole, of the modest old-age pension her man would have shared with her. She can hardly hope that any prosperous generous soul among the old students will remember her, whom they will barely have seen. Even her mental resources for self-companionship in solitary age have been largely sacrificed in homely devotion.

We believe nearly every professor, if compelled to choose, would say: "Make it certain that my wife, rather than I, will be a helpmeet, not a burden, if either must sit lonely, in old age, at the hearthside of a grandchild, or among stranger folk still."

Very truly yours,

WILLIAM C. LAWTON.

BROOKLYN, May 1, 1905.

SYDNEY SMITH AND THE DEAD LANGUAGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is very pleasant to see, among your reviews a week or two ago, a just tribute to the brilliant parson of Boston-le-Clay. The present age remembers Sydney Smith chiefly for attempts at great reforms, but persons familiar with his career will recall many noble efforts at small ones, so I cannot refrain from drawing your attention to his courage in ridiculing the excessive devotion of the English schools to the dead languages. When we bear in mind the courage it has taken today in many scholarly men to plead for broader and more modern studies at the expense of Latinity, we may realize what it required in Smith 100 years ago.

It is impossible, even for such of us as devoted hard early years to the ancient languages, to avoid laughing at his arguments or illustrations. What derision he invokes by referring to the old scholar who had little admiration for Frederick the Great because, with all his victories, it was doubtful whether he could conjugate a Greek verb correctly! After pointing out the absurdity of incessantly making Latin verses, he says of the English student:

"His object is not to reason, to imagine, or to invent; but to conjugate, decline, and derive. The situations of imaginary glory

which he draws for himself are the detection of an anapest in the wrong place, or the restoration of a dative case which Cranzius had passed over and the never-dying Ernesti failed to observe."

FREDERICK BAUSMAN.

SEATTLE, April 20, 1905.

Notes.

Herbert B. Turner & Co., Boston, announce 'Science and a Future Life,' by Prof. J. H. Hyslop, and 'Ethics of Imperialism,' by Albert R. Carman.

The more than twenty years that have elapsed since the late Lucy M. Mitchell's 'History of Ancient Sculpture' appeared, obviously tell heavily against its reissue now, unchanged and unextended (Dodd, Mead & Co.). One has only to turn to Crete in the index for a few scattering notices, to perceive how one huge chapter of archaeological discovery has grown up in the interval, with no slight contributions to the subject of this work. But what has not the spade done elsewhere in two decades to enlarge the material or alter the criterions of criticism? Even the elaborate notes and references and tables of museums have suffered from the march of time. The general index and the cuts offer a certain facility for reference, and the index of citations from the classic authors may be allowed to be absolutely unaffected by temporal considerations.

Mr. T. B. Mosher, Portland (Me.), has brought out with his customary taste a reprint of Stevenson's 'Father Damien,' prefixing Clifford's portrait of Damien, and extending Col. Prideaux's bibliography of this piece. "There are," he remarks, "apparently no translations of the *Letter*." This is well for Stevenson, as no writing from his pen is so disagreeable, not to say repulsive, in tone. A similar get-up, in smaller form, has been given by Mr. Mosher to 'The Book of Heavenly Death, by Walt Whitman, compiled from Leaves of Grass by Horace Traubel.' In this medley, all sides of Whitman except the lyrical are manifest. There is a good bardic portrait of him at the front.

The editor of 'American Book-Prices Current,' Mr. Luther S. Livingston, not satisfied with that meritorious labor, has undertaken to combine selectively his own series with the English of corresponding title, and with earlier sources antedating both. Of the four quarto volumes to result we have the first—A to Dick—"Auction Prices of Books" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). This is one of those enterprises concerning which the bare statement as just made is all-sufficient for the connoisseur, while absurdly disproportionate to the toil and expense involved. Mr. Livingston and his publishers are to be thanked heartily, and we trust they will have no difficulty in disposing of the 750 copies to which the edition is limited. We will only remark further that the Bible sales require 26 pages, Boccaccio 8, the Bewicks and Brownings 6, Cruikshank 4½, Burns 4, the Arabian Nights 2½. The highest price paid for any work of Bryant's was \$130, and his general valuation has been low. The first London edition of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' (1888) fetched \$19.50 in 1896, and ranges from that sum to \$12.

Retrospective reviewing, nowadays almost a forgotten art, is yet preserved in a volume of essays entitled 'Literary Portraits,' by Charles Whibley (E. P. Dutton & Co.). These scholarly studies deal with Rabelais, Comines, Montaigne, and kindred worthies, with the intruding exception of Casanova, here in much better company than he deserves, even though his blackguardism is, in part at least, sedulously veiled. By far the most important, as well as bulkiest, contribution to the collection is furnished in Rabelais, and represents him, in accordance with the best French scholarship, as much more than the ribald shaveling of tradition, delighting chiefly in material grossness. Mr. Whibley dwells on the wisdom of the "abstractor of quintessences," whose fight against the shams and hypocrisy of his day was conducted in a spirit of genial humor, and not in morose indignation. The respective merits of Urquhart and Motteux, as translators, are still disputable points. The Frenchman took, on the whole, fewer imaginative liberties with the original than did his predecessor. In the essay on Montaigne we are introduced to the man, rather than to the philosopher of always elusive attractiveness. No doubt, the self-revelation of the first of essayists is enticing; but a far deeper, a more entralling, study carries one on to the discussion of the conflicting currents of thought to which the conditions of the time subjected one of the subtlest of skeptics, who seems seldom to have been troubled with the anguish of *spiritual* perplexity. That Mr. Whibley is interested in undecided writers may also be conjectured from his treatment of Burton and his 'Anatomy.' Several of the essays are suggestive of the prefatory function.

One more superfluous example of literary indiscretion appears in 'The Romance of Victor Hugo and Juliette Drouet,' by Henry Wellington Wack (Putnams). It begins with eighty-nine pages of somewhat rambling introductory narrative, dealing chiefly with a sufficiently familiar liaison of no very exceptional character, followed by a collection of passionate feminine love-letters of no particular character at all. The bare statement that Hugo had an extra-conjugal Egeria—an Aspasia, in fact—who remained constant to him for fifty years, is readily comprehensible to any reader of artists' biographies, without the help of documentary details. What M. François Coppée means by giving the publication his solemn sanction is not so easy to understand. A number of photographic illustrations of persons and places have some value; but we were under the impression (from Marzials's 'Life of Victor Hugo') that the statue in the Place de la Concorde for which Mme. Drouet served as model was Lille, not Strasbourg.

First catch your hare, is Prof. William Z. Ripley's motto in his 'Trusts, Pools and Corporations' (Ginn & Co.). In order to conduct economic instruction successfully in the descriptive field, we must have raw material. This material is to be found in public documents, in legal decisions, and in the periodicals; but a class of one to two hundred men cannot make use of it. Hence, it is necessary to reprint from these sources such facts as are relevant to particular inquiries, so selected, arranged, and condensed as to be easily available. As

Professor Ripley justly observes, the testimony taken in leading cases in the courts is rich in important facts which of course cannot appear fully in the decisions. Such matter is really the basis of economic generalization, and it is certainly desirable that students of economics should have their attention directed to it. Another purpose to be furthered by such a publication is the creation of a public opinion in favor of a reasonable policy of public control over monopolistic and corporate enterprises. There is certainly danger from a public opinion favoring unreasonable control, and every attempt to substitute reason for emotion and violence is to be commended. While this compilation is planned for use as a text-book, it will be found convenient by journalists, and it may be commended to all who wish to know more of the truth concerning industrial affairs than they can learn from the daily papers.

Lawrence Duckworth's convenient manual of 'General and Particular Average' (London: Effingham Wilson) has reached a second edition, and is vouch'd for on the title-page as "entirely rewritten." The appendix contains the York-Antwerp Rules, 1890, and a number of forms in common use, revised to date. The subject is a very technical one, and the author has the essential gift of clear and concise statement.

In dealing with the 'Catalog of the Gardner Greene Hubbard Collection of Engravings,' issued by the Library of Congress, it is difficult to resist dwelling upon the beauty of the mechanical execution of the volume. The large type and arrangement of sizes and forms, the handmade paper, the generous page and broad margins, are notable examples of what can be done in the Public Printing-Office, and certainly mark a great departure from the styles of that office to which we have become accustomed. The plan of the compilation was very generous, and included the catalogue proper of engravers, an index of engravers under a chronological scheme, by centuries, an index of artists, a portrait index, and a list of authorities. No similar catalogue exists of an American collection of engravings; it will, therefore, prove a convenient book of reference for collectors. As Mr. Hubbard's taste was very catholic, he wished to obtain good examples of different schools and engravers to illustrate the progress of the art. Of the 2,700 prints listed, only 114 are assigned to American engravers; but the work of German, English, and French engravers is well represented. The collection was presented to the nation in 1898 by Mrs. Hubbard, and in default of a national art gallery the Library of Congress was the most fitting place of deposit. How far it will compare in number or in quality with collections such as the Claghorn collection it is difficult to say, but it certainly does offer an unusually good basis for study and growth in a place central for investigators. The Catalogue will serve to describe the Hubbard collection, and incidentally to indicate the needs of the Library in one line of its activities. The editor of the volume is Arthur Jeffrey Parsons, who is in charge of the collection.

The ninth volume of the new 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Lemcke & Buechner) completes the letter H and advances to Ionicus. Long articles are comparatively few, and, as usual, favor is shown in this

regard to mechanical and industrial processes and to natural history, the latter affording occasion for many striking color plates. Of the maps, one shows German Southwest Africa, and last year's native rising there is described in the fresh article *Herrero*. Among the tables is one exhibiting the Hohenzollern branches. The article on Hawaii falls short in not characterizing the method by which the "republic" was proclaimed, or recording Cleveland's repudiation of the abuse of the navy and the flag. That on Holbein's Dance of Death might have referred to the preservation of the original designs. Under Homeopathy are given statistics of the considerable stand maintained by this system of therapeutics the world over. Hypnotism is considered at some length, and its extensive literature indicated. A curious theme is illustrated in "Hydrologische Versuchsanstalten," or the establishments for testing the behavior of floating models of ships, such as the North German Lloyd supports. The letter I naturally introduces a large number of phrases and proverbs in Latin and other languages; thus we have the true origin assigned to "Il y a des juges à Berlin" and "In necessariis unitas, etc."

A book of considerable merit upon the relatively obscure colonial possessions of the Portuguese is 'As Colonias Portuguezas: Geographia, Physica, Politica e Economica,' by E. J. de C. e Vasconcellos. It has already passed into a second corrected and augmented edition. The sub-title well describes the scope of the work, which, curiously enough, is modelled upon German colonial handbooks, reviewed from time to time in these columns, whose object is to spread practical information about national possessions. The treatment is minute and careful; first-rate maps of the several possessions are given; and the text of the 1869 "decreto organico das provincias ultramarinas" is supplied for the student. Being so much later than the exhaustive work of J. de Andrade Corvo, this volume furnishes the best available information which we have met with concerning the present-day Portuguese colonies.

We are glad of the opportunity to congratulate the editor and publishers of the Chicago *Dial* on the first quarter-century of its existence as a critical magazine—now the only one (not the organ of a firm) concerned with books alone. It has been fortunate, for the maintenance of high ideals, in having the same editorial direction from the beginning, namely, that of Mr. Francis F. Browne, also the chief owner, and so with a guaranteed independence.

Mr. Albert Matthews has, in the April number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, an interesting and fairly persuasive paper on the naming of Hull, Massachusetts. His object is to remove the support of Thomas Morton (in his 'New English Canaan') from those who think that coast town was so named—from having been called Nantasket—as early as 1637, whereas it was formally named by the General Court in 1644. The passage from Morton, in a nautical figure describing a prudent captain who was debating whether to execute the Court's order of deportation against the lord of Merrymount, speaks of "this proper Mariner" being "resolved to lye at Hull rather than encounter such a

storme, etc." If Hull be written with a small initial, the phrase becomes one very common to the period, with the meaning of to ride out a storm with struck sails, or similarly to drift in a calm.

The "Diffusion Society" of China, which is supported chiefly by foreigners from Great Britain and the United States resident in China, shows in its seventeenth annual report (for 1904) what, besides its own work, has been done in twelve months by the various publication societies, clerical and lay, for the information of the Chinese people. As against 912 works, of a character more or less religious or proselyting, translated into the standard Chinese, there have been 1,481 works of science or general literature composed or translated, which Chinese can read. Of these the Diffusion Society has issued 387, and the Educational Association, having similar aims, 185 publications. In the Diffusion Society's list for 1904, making a total of 19,256,800 pages, are such books as 'Elements of Civil Government,' 'Brief Lives of the American Presidents,' 'Women in All Lands' (seventeen volumes), 'The German Empire,' 'Review of the Times' (2,730,000 pages), and the *Chinese Weekly* (1,280,000 pages), all by Dr. Young J. Allen, an American scholar who, with his corps of native assistants, has been active in China for over thirty years. Other books are: 'Universal Civilization,' and 'The Indian Empire' (2,520,000 pages), by Yin Pao-Lo. Among the reprints (11,425,500 pages) are 'Nature Readers,' 'English Law in China' (4,584,000 pages), 'Handy Cyclopaedia,' 'Geography for Home Readers,' 'Joseph Neeshima,' 'Elements of Practical Electricity,' etc., etc. All the best books thus issued are at once pirated by native publishers, Hangchow having reprinted six different editions of one book. Thus the sales of a good scientific work are fivefold that by the original owners. Many Chinese scholars coöperate with the Diffusion Society. Among the various reforms discussed in the pamphlet of fifty-three pages is the anti-footbinding work of Mrs. Archibald Little, which seems to be making extraordinary progress, being backed unanimously by the Mohammedans and largely by orthodox Confucians.

Evidently the academic youth of France is thinking of other things than "revenge." The Association Générale des Étudiants de Paris, under the direction of Professor Couchand, formerly lector in the University of Göttingen, has arranged for a "scientific" journey by German students and professors to Paris and the historic sites of Western France, to cover some twenty days during the present spring. The journey will take the visitors to Normandy, Anjou, Touraine and the banks of the Loire. In the University towns of Paris, Caen and Rennes special receptions for the German students will be held by the French university men. One of the purposes of the expedition is to cultivate good relations between the student world of the two countries. Arrangements have been made to accommodate sixty, but no more, on this novel international academic expedition.

The Academic Bureau of Information (*Auskunftsstelle*) established some time ago in connection with the University of Berlin was evidently a desideratum in the world of scholarship. Not only do from thirty to forty students and professional

men daily apply there for information, but communications come from all parts of the world pertaining chiefly to university affairs. Answers are returned only to questions which deal with scientific matter. The Bureau has sent a circular letter to all scientific bodies, corporations, etc., throughout the world, and is in a position to receive reliable information from all quarters.

What seems to have been the last remnant of the old Latin "Zopf" of the German learned world has recently been abolished, when it was made optional by the Church dignitaries of Württemberg for the participants in the annual theological tournament held under the auspices of the Deans to use the Latin or the German language. Ever since the days of the Reformation the use of Latin has been compulsory in these discussions. The change was the result of a general petition for it.

According to the report of the Commissioners of the Nobel Fund, the money at their disposal for rewards this year will be 690,446 kronen, as compared with 704,242 last year, or an average of 135,089 for each of the five recipients. The decrease is owing to the taxes which the Government of Sweden has begun to collect from the Fund.

The Summer School of Library Economy conducted at Amherst College by Mr. W. I. Fletcher enters this season upon its fifteenth year, and will be held from July 3 to August 11.

A Good Roads Conference has been called by the College of Agriculture of Cornell University to meet at Ithaca May 16 to 19. "This conference or school," as the circular calls it, will be free to all comers and will be addressed by many experts. Information may be obtained of Mr. L. H. Bailey, Director of the College.

—William Garrott Brown begins in the May *Atlantic* a history of the Tenth Decade of the United States, confining the initial paper to a kind of panoramic presentation of conditions at the close of the civil war. Magazine history does not stand in very high repute, thanks to the taste for sensational narrative and catchy illustration, but the *Atlantic* and Mr. Brown should be able to redeem it if redemption be possible. The Schiller anniversary draws forth two very readable papers, "Schiller's Message to Modern Life" and "Schiller's Ideal of Liberty," by Prof. Kuno Francke and William Roscoe Thayer, respectively. Schiller's message lies in his conception of beauty as the mediating agent between the sensuous and the spiritual; his appeal to the best, the most moral, the most human in man; his longing for equipoise, totality of character, oneness with self. He makes no vain attempt to turn the wheels of time backward, like Tolstoy in his glorification of primitiveness of existence, nor does he point to a dim and shadowy future. Rather, his philosophy guides with a steady hand toward an ideal that is at once definite and within our reach, a free, noble, progressive, self-restrained manhood. Paul Elmer More writes of the centenary of the birth of Sainte-Beuve. Jefferson B. Fletcher of the department of comparative literature in Columbia University traces "An Unrecognized Affinity" between Newman and Carlyle. One who is editorially certified as an associate professor in one of the largest and wealth-

iest American universities, demonstrates in detail, under thirty-one different heads, that a college professor needs a salary of about \$3,150 in order to live in a condition consistent with proper self-respect, bring up a small family, and leave a small amount to his children at the end of, say, thirty years of service. His own salary has averaged \$1,328.15, with an average expense of \$2,794.27, entailing an annual contribution of \$1,466.12 from private means for the privilege of enjoying the blessings of the teacher's life.

—The May *Harper's* presents about the usual makeup, with an attractive selection for the reader of short stories, and one poem of real merit, but with no special features of compelling interest. Our territorial expansion has been so insistently exploited that a reference to Prof. John Bassett Moore's paper on the subject may possibly be taken as a warning. Nevertheless, the article is well worth reading by any one who wants a simple outline of the facts, minus the usual admixture of jingoism. Professor Moore thinks that the problem of the Philippines was simplified by taking the whole rather than a part, thus avoiding the friction which might have arisen from having Spain as a neighbor in a continuous archipelago; but it is to be remembered that all or part was not the alternative. Dr. Alden, aside from his editorial department, contributes a brief paper on Subiaco, with five half-page illustrations in tint. Mrs. Ward's serial is concluded in this number, and those who have been chafing at the injury done by over-early publication in book form will doubtless now forget their grievance.

—In the *Century*, Dr. Anita Newcomb McGee continues her account of the experience of the American nurses in Japan, describing chiefly the success of the Japanese in preventing disease and in saving the lives of the wounded. She rightly takes the ground that, after playing the rôle of teacher to Japan for so long, the United States should with becoming humility admit the demonstrated fact that the pupil has bettered his instruction in certain points, and should consent to a reversal of the relation. Happy will Japan be if, among her prophylactics, there be found one to avert the political degeneration so regularly appearing among the after effects of war. Otherwise her brilliant sanitary success of the past year will hardly prove permanent. Some enterprising grafters supplying first-aid bandages of dirty material could alter the vital statistics very materially. Manager Stone describes at length the efforts for a free news service from Russia to the outside world. The Associated Press, he claims, is at present almost a recognized branch of the diplomatic service, usurping the functions of the officially commissioned diplomat, and incidentally making for universal peace by keeping the intelligent masses of all countries informed as to what is going on, so that unnecessary strife cannot be engendered behind closed doors, while the conservative elements of society are ignorant of the danger.

—"The Life of Hugh Price Hughes," by his daughter (A. C. Armstrong & Son), should delight the lovers of huge books; on a topic not quite of prime importance, most readers might prefer less liberality both of form

and of matter. Yet Mr. Hughes (1847-1902) was a notable man, whose interests and activities took a wide range. A leader of the Wesleyans, long head of the West London Mission and editor of the *Methodist Times*, his deepest devotion was to an ideal or "Free" Church, unestablished and probably invisible. "He was a prophet, criticised, misunderstood," and "his life was a continual strife," yet happy, with "a great following and rare rewards." The motto, from one of his sermons, "Not self-assertion, but limitless self-suppression, is the secret of life," seems scarcely appropriate, for he was not a man to be suppressed by himself or anybody. Dr. Joseph Parker, in 1896, hailed him as "our firebrand," and exhorted him to "burn on." Yet for so positive a person he (as here presented) is somewhat elusive, perhaps in part from his covering so much ground—it might be unfair to say that he rode too many horses at once. He discoursed (p. 366) on Buddhism and Schopenhauer, on Giordano Bruno and John Bright, on Mazzini and Ruskin, as well as on Tennyson and Browning. He said there were "two great tyrannies," the clerical and medical professions; yet he scornfully refused offered assistance at a service from a brother who was not accurately vested and coated. Art, too, was in his province: "The genius of Michael Angelo awed him, . . . but he did not love it as he did that of the Bellinis, or Raphael, or Andrea del Sarto." Botticelli perplexed him, but he greatly respected Andrea Pisano; yet a dilettante moved him to cry, "O that I had known Praise-God Barebones!" Like other strenuous folk, he had too many ideas for all of them to be sound; thus, he found in F. W. Robertson a "lack of vigor," due to his rôle as "exponent of the Gospel of Suffering"—as if that were all of the Brighton preacher. His wide sympathies with liberalism were in conflict with his dominant regard for "Evangelicism"; he admired the Broad Churchmen, but they bothered him. Through all this, one sees Mr. Hughes as in a glass of uncertain color, for his admiring biographer is also his interpreter and critic, and a person of superior claims on her own account. She tries to set down all her father ever did or said, with little order of time and not too much of logic; yet large abstractions obscure practical details. The table of contents gives as little guidance as may be; chapters are headed "The Age of Chivalry," "Inner Side of the Age," "The Catholic Idea of the Church," "The Imperial Idea of the State." Thus the book is not for him who runs; perhaps it was intended for an inner circle of Nonconformist *cognoscenti*, who can appreciate the happy union of orthodox piety with originality, of world-wide culture with Puritan principle. But at whose death was it truly said (p. vii.), "He was the most human saint that ever lived"? Is the reference to Mr. Hughes, or to his Master?

—Mr. T. Sturge Moore's 'Albert Dürer' (London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Scribners) is a singularly illusive book. It is a stoutish volume of over three hundred pages; and while all the words in it are intelligible, the exact thing that was intended to be expressed somehow escapes one. Again and again the reader follows along a course of thought that seems to be leading somewhere; he waits for the definitive summing-up that shall show just where he was being carried—and the path sudden-

ly vanishes, leaving him baffled. He begins to wonder, at last, whether the fault is not his own rather than the author's, and it is only a trial of some clearer writer that can restore his confidence in his ability to read understandingly the English language. Mr. Moore's aim is avowedly to give an appreciation of Dürer "in relation to general ideas," and he evidently regrets that "too much space has been given to the enumeration of Dürer's principal works and the events of his life, without either being made exhaustive." We must confess that we have found these parts of the book refreshing from their comparative simplicity and clarity, and a welcome interlude in the struggle with general ideas. One does, however, get from this volume certain impressions of Dürer's position as an artist and of the meaning of his theories. Perhaps the most important thing in it is Mr. Moore's explanation of Dürer's canon of proportion, which he believes was intended rather to be departed from than to be adhered to. It was a kind of standard such as every artist, consciously or unconsciously, carries in his head, for the measurement of individual variations, and its use was to make these individual variations more instantaneously perceptible by providing a norm from which they could be conceived as departing. Doubtless, also, it would tend to discourage too great divergence, and to keep the artist within the bounds of moderation. So conceived, the canon was a more rational and possibly useful thing than we have been in the habit of considering it. Mr. Moore is not of those who feel that the world is a gainer by the narrowing of Dürer's art and life, which followed his return from Venice to Nuremberg, and he thinks that something much greater and finer than anything the artist actually produced might have come of his settling permanently in Italy. A few works, notably the "Portrait of a Lady seen against the Sea" in the Berlin Gallery, lend color to this view, and one would wish to believe that Dürer was great enough to have absorbed the teaching of Venice without losing his own individuality. The book is illustrated with many good reproductions of Dürer's paintings, drawings, and engravings, and, above all, with four engravings on copper which look good enough to be from the original plates and may possibly be so; the information afforded on this head is vague.

—A first fruit of the tercentenary of 'Don Quixote's' publication is offered by Albert F. Calvert in his 'Life of Cervantes,' published by John Lane. It is well that Mr. Calvert in his preface should be as modest as he is elsewhere brief, for his book throws no new light upon "the maimed one of Lepanto," and contents itself with paraphrasing the more substantial accounts of H. E. Watts and James Fitzmaurice-Kelly. With some simulation of scholarship, however, this 'Life' lacks its essence. The bibliography of Don Quixote is a second-hand compilation, and the table of Cervantes's proverbs meagrely condenses such lists as may be found in any of the modern English versions of the classic or in separate works like Burke's 'Spanish Salt: A Collection of All the Proverbs in Don Quixote.' Further, Mr. Calvert's literary backgrounds are vague and ineffective. In the pardonable desire to exalt his hero, he

disparages everybody else. The great Lope (here generally referred to simply as "Vega") is liberally anathematized, and at length receives the *coup de grâce* in this astonishing statement: "It may be said that not a line of Lope de Vega's prodigious output is now either read or discussed." Towards Avellaneda's spurious continuation of 'Don Quixote' Mr. Calvert feels so mortal an antipathy that he regards it as the father of all literary frauds, declaring that, had it sought only to skim Cervantes's market, it still "would have been almost unparalleled at that period in the history of letters." Apparently he forgets the earlier and notorious experience of Mateo Aleman of Seville, who found his 'Guzman de Alfarache' continued by another, and who rallied to the defence with an authoritative second part. Again, to those who appreciate the very considerable influence exerted upon other literatures by Cervantes's 'Novelas Exemplares,' it is disconcerting to be left with the bald remark that "they have achieved little popularity out of the Peninsula." Other errors, presumably of proofreading, abound. Tirso de Molina becomes "Tirso de Malina" (p. 1); the 'Viage del Parnaso' is the "Vlaja" (p. 68); Tarragona is "Tarragoza" (p. 72); the Dulcinea del Toboso hails from "Tobosco" (p. 80); Don John of Austria's title remains inexplicably half-Spanish and half-English (p. 9); the Casa de Medrano is spoken of as though it were a street (p. 45); the word *affaire* becomes "affairé" (p. 21); Spenser is printed Spencer (p. 2); there are occasional grammatical slips (pp. 29, 79); and in two consecutive lines we hear of "nautiating" imitations and "omniverous" readers (p. 52). Indeed, to the scholar, the only recommendation of this 'Life' will be the more than thirty illustrations it contains, comprising several portraits of Cervantes, and reproductions of early title-pages and cuts from rare or curious editions.

JOHN BELLOWS.

John Bellows: Letters and Memoirs. Edited by his Wife. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1904.

Wherein lay the special charm and attractiveness of John Bellows?

His life, his influence over others, and his whole way of thinking give the answer. The secret of his charm and of his power is to be found in the intense vividness of his nature. His brain, his heart, and his soul were full of life.

" 'Tis life whereof our veins are scant.
'Tis life, more life, for which we pant."

If this be true, the man who is, above all men, alive, is certain, when vividness is combined with the simplicity of perfect disinterestedness, to exert over his fellows an almost miraculous power of attraction.

Consider in this light the outward career, uneventful as in one sense it was, of John Bellows.

The son of a Quaker schoolmaster in the small Cornish town of Cranborne, Bellows was at fourteen apprenticed to a local printer. He had gained from his father's instructions rather less of direct knowledge than one might have expected, but he had the inestimable benefit of being trained by a man of high principle, and by one of those

rare teachers whose aim it was to make his pupils observant and to help them to think. After fourteen, all that John Bellows learned was the result of his own unaided labor. At the most critical age of his life we see the vividness of his nature. He was a good youth, brought up under Quaker influences, but he could not accept any belief which he did not feel to be real. For a short time he was attracted towards Churchmanship, but he thought the matter well out. He passed in early youth from a nominal to an actual—that is, vivid or living—belief in the truths of Quakerism:

"I read," to use his own words, "Barclay's arguments especially, and with them the texts both of the New and of the Old Testament which he cites, till, after many anxious days and nights, the light shone on them steadily and brightly as the sunrise in a cloudless sky, and I was made as sure of the truth of what the world calls Quakerism as I was of my own existence."

An experience of this kind has even an intellectual effect which has been too little noticed. It gives energy to the whole of a man's character, it stimulates all his intellectual powers; and this is the more certain to be the case when the convert—if one may use the expression—from nominal to real belief has taken hold of a creed which in no way discourages the pursuit of truth. The reality and the simplicity of Quakerism are visible at every step of the career of John Bellows. All his work as a printer was thorough and good; it gained him, not indeed wealth, as wealth is reckoned by millionaires or by their thousands of admirers, but independence and the means of leading his own true life. His French Dictionary, the book by which he will live in the world of letters, bears the impress of his character. He imagined to himself a model pocket dictionary, filled with excellencies and ingenious devices for aiding the reader not to be found in any other work of the same kind. He had to begin with no great knowledge of French; he made himself an excellent French scholar by working at his dictionary. The labor often seemed hopeless. A friend (Professor Blackie), who saw the scheme of the work, displayed prophetic insight:

"I see," he wrote, "that you have a dash of enthusiasm about you, and that you will go through with your book for the love of it, whether it ever pays you or not; but I think I can promise you, from what I see of its plan, that, within twelve months from the time it is published, it will be all over the world as the best French dictionary ever printed."

This forecast has been fulfilled to the letter, and the words, "you will go through with your book for the love of it," give the secret of everything which Bellows did. All his work was done for the love of God and of man, and he went through with it for the love of it. He came across Roman remains at Gloucester. He knew little of Latin, but his fervent imagination forbade him to follow the example of most men and to leave unnoticed the notable things which in his case almost literally lay at his feet. By studying the Roman antiquities of Gloucester, he seized hold of one side of Roman history, and made himself an authority with men of learning on the history of the Roman settlement in Great Britain, and especially on all matters connected with the military system of Rome. Thus he became the friend and the valued correspondent of men such as Max Müller and Dr. Hübler.

They must have felt at once that they had met with an inquirer whose knowledge, was real knowledge, grounded on the facts before his eyes; who knew and took account of the deficiencies of his own education, but was inspired with the true historical spirit. The present and the past were in his mind linked together; he needed no lecturer to warn him that there was no break to be found between ancient and modern history. He knew apparently little Latin. Latin or Greek books were known to him mainly or wholly from translations; but then, he knew the contents of these translations in a way in which many good scholars fail to know the contents of the originals. Statius, for example, and Strabo, whose writings we may confidently assert have in many cases never been read by Oxford first-class men, were to him as alive and full of interest as is Gibbon or Macaulay or Carlyle to ordinary English readers. Wherever he travelled (and he travelled much), facts learned from ancient authors were before his mind. By their aid and by his own vividness of conception he, so to speak, heard wherever he went the tramp of the Roman army and saw the progress of the Roman Empire.

But, though his studies show the liveliness of his intellectual interest, John Bellows was no mere student. His knowledge gains its reality from the fact that, under the pressure of duty as well as of sympathy with every one who needed help, he took an active part in every public concern which seemed to him to offer an opening for aiding the oppressed, or which raised a conflict between right and wrong. His journeys to Russia were truly missionary expeditions. He and his companion, Joseph Neave, spent time, money, and toil, and at times risked life and health, that they might bring help to the victims of despotism and persecution. What was the measure of their actual success will never be known till the time has passed when the statement of facts might expose to peril the persons to whom they brought help, and from whom they received aid and information. But the journal and letters of John Bellows, characterized though they be by a silence and self-suppression as rare as it is admirable, bear witness to two facts, that the Quaker missionaries labored heart and soul for the promotion of justice and humanity, and that they carried help, comfort, and even consolation, to sufferers who may well have believed that no one cared for the wrongs they endured. For these labors of humanity, Bellows is certain to receive eulogy not greater than deserved, but assuredly greater than he either claimed or desired: nothing is more remarkable than his studious and emphatic rejection of the notion that philanthropic acts are the same thing as religion. He no doubt will receive far less general sympathy in regard to his strictly political efforts. An ardent Unionist cannot expect the admiration of any fervent Home Ruler. A Quaker who, though he held war to be inconsistent with the highest form of Christianity, yet urgently maintained that politicians who did not reprobate war as wrong in itself, had no right to denounce the war with the Boers as marked with inhumanity or injustice, cannot receive the applause of one who held, rightly or wrongly, that the South African war was needless. All that need here be insisted upon

is that Bellows, whether as a politician or a philanthropist, was all of a piece. He may have committed errors of judgment, but he was absolutely free from either self-interest or partisanship. He exerted an influence of a kind which could never be gained by any politician, because he appealed with unrivaled force to the moral convictions of Englishmen, and, as every one who knew him felt, had no concern but for the promotion of righteousness.

But here we turn to what was really the essence of the life no less than of the charm of John Bellows—his vivid and living religious faith. Quakerism is to outsiders, such as is the present writer, apt to seem a drab-colored faith. A Quaker is to ordinary observers a benevolent and humane person. He wears, or used to wear, a peculiar dress; he says "thou" or, rather, "thee" where the rest of us say "you"; he will not "swear," though he will "affirm"; he is, above all things and on all occasions, a devotee of peace. These peculiarities belong, or did belong, to a Quaker; they are several of them admirable, but they are none of them very interesting. They lack interest because they are the embodiment of rules which conceal rather than illustrate the principles they are meant to exemplify. Even to some Friends, as we may conjecture, these precepts have taken the place of the fundamental ideas which to George Fox and his immediate followers constituted the essence of Quakerism. These ideas can never lack interest; they can excite opposition even where they do not gain sympathy, but in reality it is impossible that they should not often arouse not only attention but sympathy. For ideas or truths that at one time were the peculiar property of Quakers, possess a very significant affinity with certain modern beliefs about God and man. Now the salient feature of John Bellows as a representative of Quakerism was that, while he was in one sense a very strict Friend, the vividness of his imagination and his faith enabled him to go back to the principles on which Quakerism was founded. He escaped from precepts to doctrines, from the letter to the spirit.

Even to illustrate this characteristic at all satisfactorily would require more space than can be conceded to any writer in the *Nation*, and would lead to the consideration of topics hardly suited for the pages of a newspaper. One example must suffice. On nothing did John Bellows insist more consistently, both by word and by action, than on the "great truth" taught by the early Friends, that we "should endeavor to walk according to our *measure* of light, and the state in which we are"; whence he drew the inference that "few things do more practical mischief than the notion that because we are not what we ought to be, it is of no use trying to do anything until we are." This faith looks like a truism; but, let it once be put into practice as it was daily by John Bellows, and we see that it affects the whole theory of religion and the whole conduct of life. For one thing, it breaks through the hard line drawn by many sincere Christians between the converted and the unconverted; who, in the words of John Bellows, "make out, resting upon a *half truth* (which is often a *whole lie*) that anything and everything the latter do is wholly displeasing to God. But they entirely ignore what Fénelon bore witness

to—that God speaks in the hearts of the unconverted in a variety of ways, *to draw them to Himself*. If there is *any measure* of yielding to this drawing, does it need argument to prove that, *in so far*, the person who endeavors so to yield is acceptable to God?" What is of far more consequence than even the preventing a real distinction from being turned into a misleading division is, that this doctrine affects the whole conduct of any Christian teacher. This was so at any rate with Bellows. Not his intellect only but his imagination and his soul seized firm hold of the belief in the measure of light. Hence he could tell strange Russian Jews, who at first looked upon him with suspicion, that their duty was to believe in and practise all that was best in Judaism. He could do much more than say this. Though he could speak only through an interpreter, he could bring home his conviction to his Jewish audience so that they blessed him for his message, and realized perhaps for the first time all that a good Jew and a real Christian had in common. He could tell Tolstoy's daughter without any compromise of his own firm Trinitarianism that, though he trusted she might see more light, her one duty was to follow the light that she did see, and wait till God showed her more.

The 'Letters and Memoirs' of Bellows literally teem with examples of the way in which this belief in the measure of light brought him into unity with, and enabled him to arouse all that was good in, men of different creeds and of different races. With no class, one would think, must a Friend find it harder to deal than with soldiers. To John Bellows the matter presented no difficulty whatever. He met two English soldiers on the way to their homes before joining the army then fighting the Boers in South Africa. The men would no doubt soon be engaged, and might likely enough die in battle. He showed them in the first place great and practical kindness. He then wrote them a letter which was certainly kept and could hardly in any case have been forgotten. Take but a few words from it:

"If you should [thus die], get this thought fixed firm in your hearts beforehand, and you will find it will hold you up even in death—that God who made you is as near to you as his own breath is, and that His Spirit keeps in touch with your spirits: so close in touch that He does not even need a cry from the lips to reach Him, only . . . a determination to trust in His goodness and mercy, . . . or, to put it into Bible words, He is able to save to the uttermost all that come unto Him: and in His own words, 'Him that cometh unto Me I will in no wise cast out.'"

This language, some logician will tell us, cannot be reconciled with Quakerism. The words might and assuredly would have been applied by the speaker to Boer soldiers going to join the native army, no less than to the soldiers of the Queen. They are, like every word uttered by John Bellows, vivid words of life, spoken by a man who was himself full of life.

DILL'S ROMAN SOCIETY.

Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius. By Samuel Dill, M.A., Hon. Litt.D., Hon. LL.D., etc. Macmillan. 1904.

With the time and energy spent upon the subject, it might seem a matter of surprise that the facts of Roman society have not

long ago been duly assorted, labelled, and put upon the shelf; but the wraith is not at rest even yet. Under the influence of common historical tradition, it is hard to think of anything good at all in connection with an age and an empire which put a Nero and then a Domitian at the head of the civilized world. Andrew D. White, in commenting upon the famous satirical tractate in which a clever German professor used the faults and follies of Caligula to condemn by inevitable suggestion the career of the German Emperor, has recently said: "As men began to think, they began to realize that the modern German Empire resembles in no particular that debased and corrupt mass with which the Imperial Roman wretches had to do, and that the new German sovereign, in all his characteristics and tendencies, was radically a different being from any one of the crazy beasts of prey who held the imperial power during the decline of Rome." There are not wanting among recent critics, on the other hand, those who assail with great vigor the trustworthiness of the evidence on which such an unfavorable view is based. Even Nero has found an apologist in an Oxford devotee of historical research, and it is now generally admitted that much of the odium has been lifted from the memory of Tiberius, though we may not follow Mr. Tarver in setting him up as the ideal Roman. Evidently, then, the problem of Roman society under the Empire has not reached a state of stable equilibrium, and Mr. Dill cannot be accused of spending his years in flailing away at straw from which the grain has already been exhausted. And in spite of the words of Dr. White, the differences between the society of Rome and that of the German Empire or any other modern civilized nation are not so great as to deprive the lessons of the former time of a very vital bearing upon the problems of our own.

The author's general method is similar to that of his study of Roman society in the last century of the Western Empire, published six years ago. In the present volume, his materials are grouped under three main headings, Social Life, the Gospel of Philosophy, and the Revival of Paganism. We may take the phrase of Horace, *aurea mediocritas*, as the key to his general attitude towards the many debatable problems naturally arising in such a series of studies. Rome was neither the Sodom and Gomorrah which the Christian moralist is readily tempted to paint it as an effective background against which to display the comparative purity of New Testament morals, nor yet was it the paradise of virtue which it might have been, had its best pagan preaching been a correct index of its actual life.

Professor Dill does not, of course, attempt any unified characterization of his period as a whole. "The truth is, that society in every age presents the most startling moral contrasts, and no single comprehensive description of its moral condition can ever be true." There is certainly contrast enough between Nero and Marcus Aurelius, "the tyranny of one of the worst men who ever occupied a throne," and the "mild rule of a Stoic saint"; but even here we are cautioned against the hasty conclusion that the change at the head marked any deep-seated moral revolution among the masses. The old Roman character was a stubborn type. Contemporaneously with the brutalized court circle around a Nero, it could preserve a

respectable nobility of no mean numerical proportions, either geographically aside from the reach of infection or morally immune. There was the idle mob of poor in the city, living upon the largesses of those who had an interest in the purchase of its favor, but there were also, in districts remote from the city's demoralizing influences, thousands of industrious families digging an honest living out of their little farms after the humble and self-respecting manner of the older days. And if the mephitic exhalations from Nero's circle could not rot the good all out of his empire, neither were its baleful elements withered away under the healthful moral sunshine radiating from the court of Aurelius.

But, without any revolution radically affecting the great mass of the population, Professor Dill does find certain moral forces so busily at work as to constitute a distinctive feature of the period. The dominant attitude of those who thought seriously upon such matters was one of sincere groping for a better foothold than the traditional faith had been able to furnish. The Roman religion spent itself upon the outward act of formal worship, the technical fulfilment of a vow to do some specific thing; it set up no ladder for the soul that aspired to climb above the earthly level, held out no sure promise of a recompense beyond the grave for the hungry spirit that could find no satisfaction in the paltry pleasures and rewards of the present life. Hence the eager turning to the various faiths to which imperial expansion gave an easy channel of entrance from the East, such as the religions of the Magna Mater, of Isis and Serapis, and preëminently of Mithra. In some of these cases, of course, the higher element desired came freighted with accretions that wrought disastrous demoralization; but in the aggregate there was a real moral gain, and especially so in the introduction of Mithra, the God of Light, whose robes had been kept comparatively clean of the licentious contaminations from which the religions of the East so easily suffered. This tendency among the choicest spirits to turn to other gods for the higher things, naturally put the devotees of the national faith on their mettle, and the revival of paganism which began under the influence of Augustus, largely from political motives, was marked later on by a sincere attempt to prove the old religion adequate to the satisfaction of all legitimate demands of the soul.

The one seriously vulnerable point in Professor Dill's method, we think, lies in his attempt to treat this phase of his subject entirely aside from its connection with the existence and rapid growth of Christianity in the Empire. It had become a noticeable factor in the life of the capital at the beginning of his period, and it was seriously worrying the governors of the provinces long before the period came to an end. It is hardly logical to assume that the clutching at Mithra for a better life in this world and a more confident assurance of immortality had nothing to do with the existence of a faith which put its main emphasis upon these very points. There is a strong scientific presumption that such an element must have reacted vitally upon all lines of moral development, in some way or other, and to eliminate it from the discussion is to insure inadequacy, if not inaccuracy, from the beginning. We may agree with

the author, and with M. Boissier, whom he quotes in justification, that the historian of the Antonine period is free to treat paganism apart from the growth of the Christian Church, but the Christian religion and the Church as such have never been exactly identical, and the one has been excluded quite as strictly as the other. It would have been better to brave all controversial difficulties and present the matter whole.

Recent criticism has brought it about that the attitude displayed towards Tacitus is, within due limits, a very fair test of the fitness of a writer to deal with the period which Tacitus covered. For centuries his burning words were read with no thought of due allowance for the personal equation, and the result was a greatly distorted view of Roman history at some of the most important points. Then careful scholars began to read him with a better appreciation of his temperament and his point of view, and to correct his biased opinions from his own conscientious statement of facts. At once a third class sprang forward, actuated perhaps too often by what Professor Dill calls "the scholarly weakness for finding a new interpretation of history," ready to fling his hitherto honored statue down the Gemonian stairs as that of an intentional traducer of his people and their rulers. To accept the one extreme or the other is to go hopelessly astray from the very start, and Professor Dill is too competent a scholar to do either. Indeed, it would be hard to find a better brief summary of the character of Tacitus as a historian, both in his merits and in his defects, than is presented in a few pages of the opening chapter. We commend these pages especially to those narrow-visioned critics who have not been able to realize that historical justice to Tiberius involves no serious detraction from the fame of one of the most effective and suggestive writers of history who ever lived, whether in ancient Rome or in any other land or age. The key, of course, lies in recognizing him primarily as a moralist. "The ideal which he is avenging is not a political but a moral ideal. The bitter sadness is that of a profound analyst of character, with a temperament of almost feverish intensity and nervous force." During the period covered by his historical studies, the transmission of the imperial sceptre had been attended by a personal descent in moral level in every case save that of Vespasian, and the outlook was certainly not hopeful.

It is easy to assume too radical a divergence between the Rome of Tacitus and that of the younger Pliny, and we are not sure that Professor Dill is careful enough to present the two writers in their proper relation. It did not fall in Pliny's way to present the dark features of Roman life so prominent in Tacitus, but there is ample evidence in his letters of his knowledge of the existence of those features. His moral nature, though of equal fineness, was not so insistent. He lays the burden of the time aside and tells us cheerily of many things that pleased him; but that burden was bound fast upon Tacitus by the hand of inevitable Fate, and the evil which he was thus forced to denounce precluded more than a merely incidental expression of counterbalancing good. The close and lasting friendship between the two was no doubt based upon moral and political views es-

sentially harmonious, and we but throw dust in our eyes if we imagine serious variation.

In general, it may be said that Professor Dill is quite happy in his treatment of the names which belong to the literary history of Rome as well as to its social history or its politics. It takes a broad mind to sympathize warmly with the moralizing of Seneca, and still to appreciate heartily the mire-stained pearls of the 'Satyricon' of Petronius. The repugnance sometimes expressed towards Seneca tries his patience: "His apparent inconsistency has condemned him in the eyes of an age which professes to believe in the teaching of the Mount and idolizes grandiose wealth and power. His rhetoric offends a taste that can tolerate and applaud verbose banalities with little trace of redeeming art." The forced and extravagant character of his rhetoric is of course admitted, but the sincerity of his moral teaching is vigorously defended. "The Christianity of the twentieth century might well hail with delight the advent of such a preacher, and would certainly forget all the accusations of prurient gossip in the accession of an immense and fascinating spiritual force." There was a consuming moral earnestness in his preaching, we are told, firing it with the emotion of modern religion and driving it down to the roots of conduct, where lie the fundamental principles which are true for all ages alike. Whether this is fully warranted or not, it is well that a Christianity somewhat overloaded with the characteristic Anglo-Saxon intolerance should be called back to a careful review of some of the more important visions of moral truth which have been vouchsafed to seeking souls generally discredited as outside the pale. Even in Petronius Mr. Dill finds indications of commendable moral purpose.

"We may perhaps surmise that he was at once perverted and disillusioned, alternately fascinated and disgusted by the worship of the flesh and its lusts in that evil time. . . . Is it not possible that the gay, elegant trifler may sometimes have scorned himself as he scorned his time? Is it not possible that along with other illusions he had parted with the illusions of vice, and that in the 'Noctes Neronis' he had seen the adder among the roses? He has written one of the keenest satires ever penned on the vulgarity of mere wealth, its absurd affectations, its vanity, its grossness. May he not also have wished, without moralizing in a fashion which so cultivated a trifler would have scorned, to reveal the abyss towards which a society lost to all the finer passions of the spirit was hurrying?"

This and the volume of six years ago, though free of any statement to that effect, convey the impression that the author intends to fill the intervening gap at least, if not also to go still further back and give a volume to the century from Julius Caesar to Nero, thus covering the social development of the Empire from its beginning down to the cessation of its formal existence in the West. Doubtless there were personal reasons compelling the illogical order in which the different divisions of the period have so far been taken up, but it is a misfortune, nevertheless. The forces Mr. Dill deals with were continuous in their development, and could best have been investigated and presented to the reader by following the current. In conclusion, we want to emphasize the point that this volume is not a mere raking over of dry

bones, with nothing but an antiquarian interest for the reader of to-day. It is more vital to the student of modern social, religious, and political tendencies than a large share of the strictly modern sociological theses, studies, and dissertations now issuing in such profusion from the workshops of the doctor-making universities. And, aside from its inherent importance, its thoughts are so lucidly and attractively expressed that no intelligent reader, whether a Latinist or not, can fail to find it pleasant reading.

The Napoleonic Empire in Southern Italy and the Rise of the Secret Societies. By R. M. Johnston. The Macmillan Co. 1904.

Mr. Johnston's first book dealt with the *Risorgimento*, and his second with Napoleon. In his third he brings Italy and Napoleon together by sketching the annals of that short-lived state which, after having Joseph Bonaparte for its first ruler, passed into the hands of the more brilliant and daring Murat. Nelson's relations with the Neapolitan Bourbons, the feats of Fra Diavolo, and the tragedy with which French pretensions to Southern Italy closed, are all familiar subjects; but when we turn from the picturesque and anecdotal side of Neapolitan affairs during the Napoleonic period to the details of domestic reorganization, we enter a region which, for most readers, is *terra incognita*. Mr. Johnston's efforts would have been well put forth had he done nothing more than revive the memory of one quiet and patriotic reformer, Giuseppe Zurlo.

When the French Revolution broke out, there was no part of Europe which required renovation so badly as the realm of the two Sicilies. Taine has given us, in his 'Ancien Régime,' a long series of graphic statistics concerning the misapplication of public funds in France and the unfortunate consequences of privilege. In many of the German states the general conditions were equally bad, and sometimes may even have been worse. But northern Europe never suffered quite so severely from the operation of outworn feudal customs as did Naples and Sicily in the second half of the eighteenth century. On the whole, we have found Mr. Johnston's first chapter a more striking piece of portraiture than any other portion of his two volumes. Taking up the state of Naples in 1805, he shows how feudal tenures of fifty different kinds

"involved services in person, payments in kind and in money, under more than 1,400 specified heads. . . . There was a tithe on hens, a tax for keeping them within doors, a tax for setting them, for killing them, on their eggs; in some baronies it was forbidden to dispose of them; in another, the right of taking as many of them as the Baron required was asserted. . . . Fuel was taxed as thoroughly as food: hearths paid toll, while even pine cones and dead leaves did not escape detection. . . . At Tufara the peasant was made to pay for the notable privilege of throwing the *immondizze* of the household out of the windows into the street, while at Conversano the cause of sanitation was dissimilarly advanced by the Baron, who exacted payment for the privilege of constructing a drain."

Of course, people like the *lazzaroni* of Naples do not want to be reformed, nor are they quick to appreciate the benefits of a

decent administration even when these are thrust upon them. The chief interest of this work centres in the activities of men who sought to give Naples something of the blessings that France enjoyed under the Code. In times past, historians have lavished too much notice upon Mary Caroline and her inconsequent husband, Ferdinand—a man who could cheerfully go hunting while the funeral of his nearest relative was proceeding. Of far more consequence than this self-indulgent Bourbon and his meddlesome queen—of far more consequence, indeed, than Joseph Bonaparte and Murat—are the statesmen like Roederer and Zurlo, who strove with sincere purpose to clear away the evil heritage of thirty centuries. Roederer, working under Joseph, did a good deal to improve the financial condition of the kingdom, but the most lasting results were attained during Murat's régime by a Feudal Commission meeting under the direction of Zurlo.

"In a little more than a year this court disposed of no less than 5,000 cases. . . . The records of the Feudal Commission are voluminous; they are to be found in ninety-six printed volumes and about 5,000 bundles of documents now stored at the Archivio di Stato at Naples. . . . What was perhaps most noteworthy in Zurlo's conduct of this essentially revolutionary work was that he never allowed his zeal for reform and for improving the lot of the peasantry to outstrip his sense of justice and equity. He knew how to refuse the tenant an unjust release as well as how to compel the Baron to contribute his due to the prosperity of the community."

"When uplifting, get underneath" is the shaft launched by a modern satirist against dilettante benevolence. Zurlo certainly got underneath, but the spirit of self-help was even less apparent among the subjects of Murat than it had been among the subjects of the Spanish Bourbon, Charles III. Mr. Johnston's second volume takes up the Carbonari movement which succeeded Ferdinand's restoration in 1815 and culminated in the revolution of 1820. While it is hard, at this time of day, to take characters like Pepe and Rossetti very seriously, the Carbonaro Parliament throws more light upon the Neapolitan attitude towards and capacity for democracy than does any other incident which is connected with the revolutionary movement in Southern Italy. Never has a genuine aspiration for freedom been more highly colored by the ridiculous and the grotesque. For the amusement of Italian students we append a delightful squib which Mr. Johnston has unearthed from the manuscripts of 1820. After the Austrians had chased such of the genuine Carbonari as remained into the mountains of the Abruzzi, the following jest went the rounds of the capital:

"Pulcinello malecontento
Disertò dal reggimento,
Scrisse a mamma a Benevento
Della patria il triste evento.

Movimento, parlamento,
Giuramento, pentimento,
Gran fermento e poco argento,
Armamento e nel cimento
Fra spavento e tradimento
Siam fuggiti come il vento,
Me ne pento, me ne pento.
Mamma cara, mamma bella,
Prega Dio per Pulcinella."

Mr. Johnston has a great aptitude for the description of campaigns, and gives us an excellent account of the fighting which attended the French occupation of Southern

Italy. Here Murat stands out above and beyond all others, nor has Mr. Johnston neglected to emphasize his best qualities as a ruler. For ourselves we must say that the general reform of Neapolitan administration under French influence seems a much more notable subject than is afforded by the personal experiences of any single actor in this drama, and accordingly we have laid most stress on the motive of reconstruction. Altogether, Mr. Johnston's work is a distinct contribution to knowledge, and strengthens the favorable impression which has been made by his previous books.

Theodore Thomas: A Musical Autobiography.
Edited by George P. Upton. Chicago:
A. C. McClurg & Co.

Probably the most extraordinary thing about the life of the late Theodore Thomas was that, until prostrated by his last illness, he was never absent from, or late at, a concert or rehearsal during a period of more than fifty years. Mr. Upton gives some striking examples of his tremendous strength. On one occasion, finding his progress on the sidewalk impeded by four ruffians walking abreast, he flung two of them against a building, while the other two went sprawling into the gutter. On another occasion he placed his hand flat down upon a table, and, raising his third finger, brought it down with such force as to make the glasses on the table fairly dance. It was this strength and robust health that enabled him to bear a burden of labor for half a century that would soon have broken down any ordinary person. And his mind was made of the same tough fibre:

"I guess I am a little blue to-night," he once said to Mr. Upton. "I have been thinking, as I sat here, that I have been swinging the baton now for fifteen years, and I do not see that the people are any farther ahead than when I began, and, as far as my pocket is concerned, I am not as well off. But," and he brought his powerful fist down on the table, "I am going to keep on, if it takes another fifteen years."

Most fortunate it was for the cause of music in America that Theodore Thomas had such strength of body and mind, for he was doing pioneer work in a most unpromising soil—"doing the kind of work for music in this country that the first settler does who ploughs his furrows in the primeval wilderness." When he first came to New York, it took vessels six weeks to cross the Atlantic, and pigs ran through Broadway. For a musician the only resource was joining a brass band and playing for parades or for dancing, or in the theatres. In the autobiographic sketch which takes up the first 113 pages of volume I., Thomas tells us how, when he had to play all night at a ball, he looked on this "as a mode of practice." Once, when hard up, he fiddled in the bar-room of a hotel till he had gathered in what he needed. Later, when he had got as far as giving concerts in New York with William Mason and others, he did not hesitate to stand at a street corner distributing circulars—an interesting detail not mentioned by Mr. Thomas or his editor.

The first conductor who played with a large orchestra in New York was Louis A. Jullien. One of his pieces was a "Fireman's Quadrille," during the performance of which an alarm of fire was regularly sounded, and a brigade of firemen appeared

in the hall! Thomas was one of Jullien's violinists for a time, and this may help to explain why he himself, in 1867, when he gave his Terrace Garden concerts, once created a sensation by making the piccolo players climb up into the trees before the piece began. On another occasion the tuba player had been sent behind the audience into the shrubbery. When he began to play, the police mistook him for a practical joker who was disturbing the music, and tried to arrest him. "I shall never forget the comical scene," Thomas writes, "as the poor man fled toward the stage, pursued by the irate policeman, and trying to get in a note here and there as he ran." Possibly it was in consequence of the talent unexpectedly shown by Theodore Thomas in this line that Barnum one day called on him to engage him for a tour of the country.

"After he had gone, and I had recovered from my astonishment, can anybody blame me for feeling properly elated that the greatest manager of the greatest menagerie on earth considered me worthy of his imperial guidance, and was willing to place me advantageously before the public beside the fat woman and the elephants!"

The life of Theodore Thomas thus had its comic episodes, but for the most part it was serious, not to say pathetic. His disappointments were numerous, and it was not till a few weeks before his death that he reached the goal he had striven for all his life—a permanent orchestra in its own hall and with a fund sufficient to take away all worry for the future. One of his greatest disappointments was the Philadelphia Centennial Exposition. The musical programme had been planned on the grandest scale, but "the undertaking was a dismal failure, and the orchestra had to be disbanded at the end of July." This, and later experiences at Chicago, convinced him that people "go to a World's Fair to see and not to hear; to be amused, not to be educated"; and when he was consulted, in 1904, by the commissioners of the St. Louis Exposition, he advised them to give plenty of military music out of doors, which advice the commissioners wisely followed. In such cases Thomas felt himself helpless; he could not compete with all the rival "shows"; but in his life-work as a whole he was successful in convincing thousands that if they would only come to him to be educated, they would remain to be entertained and delighted.

Nothing in these volumes is more suggestive than the reference to his method of coaxing people to his concerts. He liked to give his audiences something "to chew on," as he used to say—but not too much at a time. He put the best music in the first or second part of the programme, and filled the third with popular delicacies, so that the hearers could not get away from the better music without giving up the tinkling tunes. He knew that if they thus heard the good music repeatedly, they would soon learn to prefer it to the syllabus. In his little essay on Programme Making, in the second volume, he explains why Beethoven and Wagner became the pillars, as it were, of his programmes: "Beethoven answers a double purpose: he gives delight to the educated, and teaches the uneducated," while Wagner "represents the modern spirit, and his effective scoring makes the desired climax. Wagner ex-

cites his hearers, especially the younger generation, and interests the less musical." But while these were the "pillars," Thomas had room for all the others, of whatever time or country. The second of Mr. Upton's volumes, which is mainly taken up with the best of the programmes arranged by Thomas during half a century (there were over 10,000 to choose from!), attests the great conductor's catholicity of taste, and forms an invaluable document for historians, conductors, and musicians in general. Mr. Upton quite properly says that they form "a complete musical education system."

The Elements of Railway Economics. By W. M. Acworth. Oxford University Press: New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

An intelligent man, if he will apply his mind for a few hours to the study of this little book, may have a clearer understanding of the problem of railway rates than is now manifested by the President and Congress, by the Supreme Court and the Interstate Commerce Commission, and by most of our public speakers and newspaper editors. Mr. Acworth complains that he was forced to prepare this essay by the lack of a text-book on the subject; but we have no condolence to offer him. He has explained a difficult problem with such admirable lucidity as to bring it within the popular comprehension, and he would have been censurable had he hid his light under a bushel. While his book may have been intended for his students at the London School of Economics, and while its illustrations and applications are primarily English, the American people stand in especial need of its lessons, and their need has never been so great as it will be during the coming years.

The fundamental truth which our people commonly fail to grasp, and which Mr. Acworth establishes in a manner absolutely conclusive, is that equal rates for transportation are impossible. Were all merchandise alike, there might be some approximation to equality; but goods differ in bulk, in weight, in perishability, in value. Iron will bear a rate that coal will not, coal will bear a rate that stone will not, lumber will bear a rate that firewood will not, wool will bear a rate that cotton will not. It is a common belief that rates should be proportioned to mileage; but the claim will not bear a moment's examination. Suppose a railroad joining two cities between which there is communication also by water. It is evident that if the railroad is to carry freight between these points it must be at a rate as low, or nearly as low, as that of water carriage. It is probable that unless the railroad obtains much higher rates for traffic to and from intermediate points, it cannot be operated at all. Forbid the railroad to grant special rates, or rebates, in competition with the water route, and you require it to earn all its revenue from the interior traffic. Hence it must charge higher rates for this traffic; while if it were allowed to compete with the water routes it would earn additional revenue, and would thus be enabled to make lower charges to the intermediate points. And what is true of the competition of water routes is also true of the competition of other railways, and even of highways.

Few railways are operated to their full capacity. They could move more trains, they could move more cars to the train, they could put more freight in the cars which they do move. Suppose a freight train returns empty from its destination; the cost of moving it is nearly as great as if the cars were loaded. If by allowing a rebate of one-half, or of nine-tenths, of the regular rate, a return train-load of freight can be procured, it will pay to allow the rebate. And it will pay not only the owners of the railroad, but also their other customers, who are very likely complaining of the rebate; for the increased earnings of the road tend to bring about reduced charges. In fact, it might almost be said that no road can reduce its charges except by increasing its earnings; and earnings are increased by accepting all the traffic which can be handled—at any rate which produces any profit whatever. Mr. Acworth's demonstration of these truths is beautifully simple, and it would be a fortunate thing for our country were it brought to the public attention. When we consider that our Government is now largely engaged in transporting mail matter; that it charges thirty-two times as much for some kinds of this matter as for others; that it charges as much for carrying a bundle a mile as for three thousand miles; that in many cases the rate of charge is two or three hundred times, sometimes a thousand times, as great as in others—when we consider all this, it is certainly remarkable that any one should propose to make the equalization of railroad rates a Governmental function. Yet this proposal may be carried into effect unless our citizens are willing to listen to men like Mr. Acworth, who are at the pains to present in a few words the lessons derived from a long experience.

Neolithic Dew-ponds and Cattle-ways. By A. J. and G. Hubbard. Longmans. 1905.

"We have no waters to delight
Our broad and brookless vales—
Only the dew-pond on the height
Unfed, that never fails,
Whereby no tattered herbage tells
Which way the season flies—
Only the close-bit thyme that smells
Like Dawn in Paradise."

We wonder how many persons who read this stanza in Mr. Kipling's fine poem "Sussex" understand what he meant by the third and fourth lines. The word "dew-pond" has so far escaped the net of the compilers of the Oxford Dictionary, but it still has a chance to appear under "pond." In the work cited above, the authors endeavor to solve the question of the water-supply of the Neolithic dwellers in hill-encampments on the Downs in the South of England. There were apparently no wells, and they had to depend on the "unfed" artificial dew-pond. The art of making these has never quite died out in England. There are still wandering gangs of men whose trade it is to construct for farmers a pond which, in however dry a situation, will contain more water in the summer heat than in the wet winter season. The supply is independent of springs or rainfall. The dew-pond makers

"hollow out the earth for a space far in excess of the apparent requirements of the proposed pond. They then thickly cover the whole of the hollow with a coating of dry straw. The straw is then covered by a

layer of finely puddled clay, and the upper surface of the clay is closely strewn with stones. The pond will gradually become filled with water, the more rapidly the larger it is, even though no rain may fall. . . . During the warmth of a summer day the earth will have stored a considerable amount of heat, while the pond, protected from this heat by the non-conductivity of the straw, is at the same time chilled by the process of evaporation from the puddled clay. The consequence is that, during the night, the moisture of the comparatively warm air is condensed on the surface of the cold clay. As the condensation during the night is in excess of the evaporation during the day, the pond becomes, night by night, gradually filled. . . . In practice it is found that the pond will constantly yield a supply of the purest water."

From all which we may justly conclude that labor was more available than boring tools for Neolithic man, and that even now there is a good deal of leisurely and cheap labor in the South of England.

Closely connected with the dew-ponds are the cattle-ways down which primitive man drove his herds from the entrenched settlement to water. These ponds were always outside the earthworks, and were themselves sometimes fortified. As for the encampments themselves, the readers of Mr. Hardy's "Mayor of Casterbridge" will remember his description of the huge, mysterious earthworks outside Casterbridge (which is, of course, Dorchester). Maumbury Ring, as it is called, is an oval structure measuring 218 by 163 feet. Its embankment is about thirty feet high. At the northeast there is an opening some thirty feet wide. Mr. Hardy always refers to this Ring as a Roman amphitheatre, but the present writers maintain that it is a solar temple, one of the earliest of its kind, having the orientation of Stonehenge and originally holding a sun-stone in its eastern cleft; the stone itself was still to be seen in the eighteenth century. Where Mr. Hardy and the majority of antiquaries see "the slopes lined with a gazing legion of Hadrian's soldiery," our authors, carrying their imaginations further back, behold hordes of Neolithic men. Just so were their settlements constructed. All through the Downs can be traced vast hill-encampments, in some cases as old as the Egyptian pyramids, and built, it must be remembered, without metal tools. Specimens of their flint tools have been found in the neighborhood. The remains of dew-ponds are always to be found near them, with the cattle-ways as has been described.

The whole study is well worth reading even by those who have no immediate interest in antiquarian topography. There are numerous and very clear photographs of dew-ponds both dried up and still in commission, and of those imposing embankments wherein primitive man toiled to entrench himself and his cattle against wild beasts and hostile neighbors.

Philosophy as Scientia Scientiarum, and A History of Classifications of the Sciences. By Robert Flint. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. 1904.

A Syllabus of Certain Topics of Logic. By C. S. Peirce. Boston: Alfred Mudge & Son. 1903.

Judicious and thorough, the historical part of Dr. Flint's volume satisfies well the conditions that are most essential to a satisfactory history of any department of

philosophy. Devoted students of the subject, the few there are, will not need to be told this. It is not merely that Dr. Flint's skill in the clear presentation of the history of philosophy is known to them by his "Vico," his "Historical Philosophy in France," and his "Philosophy of History in Europe," but that for now nearly twenty years they have had the larger and major part of this very work at their elbows, undeterred by its obliging them to harbor volumes of the old-fashioned review in which it first appeared, ponderous volumes—in their avoidupois we mean, and not merely in their tone. A certain tell-tale redolence of the quarterly-reviewer clings to Dr. Flint still, in a habit of pronouncing judgment concerning questions of philosophy and criticism without having submitted much evidence, if any, to the judgment of the reader, to whom alone it really appertains to pass judgment. This harmless addiction is certainly not a mark of great philosophical strength, nor can that quality be claimed for Dr. Flint; but it has been one of the foibles characteristic of Scottish philosophers, and we all know how the stock of one or two or three has been rising of late in the world's market of criticism. That man has not learned to read philosophy to serious purpose who, other things being equal, does not more enjoy, in a discussion of a *purely theoretical* question, to read that from which he deeply dissents than that with which his own opinions mainly concur. Besides, Dr. Flint's habit brings along with it that sturdy Scottish freedom of private opinion which does not quail before the face of any host of authorities—a trait, for all its amusing us at times, which in a historian of philosophy is as valuable to his student, after those of thoroughness, level-headedness, and fairness, as any that occur to us, simply because the writer who possesses it suggests ideas, while he who follows the great authorities suggests nothing to the student who reads their works for himself.

If Dr. Flint asserts many things which, so far as appears, he is unable to prove, they are for the most part propositions which recommend themselves to natural good sense, and thus at any rate suggest interesting questions. He has attempted no classification of his own, and, as long as he has not been moved to do so, we need not lament it. In this and other historical works he has employed his philosophical capacities with such wisdom as to render them more conducive to philosophical progress than those of many a more vigorous thinker, though it be only indirectly, by the pabulum his works afford to the more vital thought of others. We must say, however, of this book that its utility would have been appreciably enhanced if an appendix had exhibited the schemes of those classifications which are described merely in general terms in the text. Moreover, we should have preferred an alphabetical index to the analytical table of contents that is furnished; but why might we not have had both?

As for fairness, perfection in this virtue is as unattainable as in any other. Dr. Flint is a professor of theology, and it is to be presumed that some cause renders it more difficult for divines to be fair than for other men. We quote the passage which seems to be the most suspect in this respect of any in the book:

"We now reach Auguste Comte, than whom,

perhaps, no one has done more for philosophy as positive. He owes the high place he holds among philosophers to the power and skill and general truthfulness of his elaboration of the doctrine of the so-called positive sciences as a whole, not to the merits of his treatment of the particular problem of the classification of the sciences. He claimed, but had no right whatever to claim, that he originated the classification which he adopted. If that classification possess any merits, they must be ascribed to Dr. Burdin, who conceived it, and to Saint-Simon, who first received and published it; not to Comte, although he showed how much could be made of it. . . . The classification cannot be disengaged from the celebrated 'law of the three stages.'

As to this law, M. Lévy-Bruhl remarks that it

"had been anticipated and even already formulated in the eighteenth century by Turgot, then by Condorcet, and by Dr. Burdin. Comte, nevertheless, takes to himself the merit of the discovery. As he is generally most precise in doing full justice to his precursors, we must admit that, according to him, none of them had seen the scientific importance of this law. It certainly is one thing to gather the notion of a law out of a number of facts, and another to understand its capital importance, and to discern in it the fundamental law which governs the whole evolution of humanity."

It will be seen, from this admission of a writer who, though not a Comteist, is extremely favorable to Comte, that no charge of unfairness on the part of Dr. Flint can be sufficiently supported upon his rather harsh phrases. It is by no means beyond a doubt that the general truth of the Comtean classification depends upon that of the law of the three stages.

It may very likely strike the general reader that the classification of the sciences must probably be a very small matter to have a history that can be expanded into a book. How many such classifications have ever been proposed in all, he may ask? Dr. Flint does not tell, nor can the reviewer; but the latter has examined upwards of a hundred that may fairly be said to be independent of one another. Of titles of publications approximately covering the question, Dr. Ernest Cushing Richardson, in his book called 'Classification,' enumerated about half as many again; but these are not all independent. Their multitude will not appear surprising if one considers that, in the first place, the different writers aim to make their several classifications subserve several widely distinct purposes, and that their theories of the nature of classification in general are very diverse; that, in the second place, the general word "science" means, for some, what *scientia* and *ἐπιστήμη* meant for the ancients, while for others it means, with Coleridge, systematized knowledge, and, with a third party yet, the whole business of research as an existing activity; that, in the third place, those who entertain substantially the same notion of science in general, may nevertheless differ as to the nature of "a science"; and that, in the fourth place, while the majority of those who attempt to classify the sciences have in view all possible sciences, there are not a few who intend only to enumerate those which have hitherto developed somewhat extensive doctrines. Thus there is no lack of substance for the history.

The second title at the head of this notice is that of a brochure distributed last winter, which gives an outline sketch in four pages of a somewhat elaborate inquiry

into the relations of the actual living and advancing studies as they are conceived by the researchers themselves. The outline embraces only theoretical sciences of research; but the study on which it is based allows considerably more space to the practical sciences.

Dr. Flint's essay on philosophy as *scientia scientiarum* sketches his own notion of what philosophy should be. There is little argument in it, and that little rather inconclusive.

Manual of the Trees of North America (Exclusive of Mexico). By Charles Sprague Sargent, Director of the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University. With six hundred and forty-four illustrations from drawings by Charles Edward Faxon. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

The times are ripe for this book. In this country there is an increasing interest in forestry and in trees as trees. The large and expensive volumes of Professor Sargent's 'Silva of North America' are now accessible in public and private libraries throughout the United States and Canada, to those who wish to identify the native species of ligneous plants; but, from the nature of the case, such consultation must needs be in the house. Every lover of trees desires to take into the field some convenient guide which can answer a good share of his questions offhand. This task of providing a handy book of reference in field-work fell naturally to the author and illustrator of the 'Silva.' Both have done their work well. While disagreeing wholly with certain features of the nomenclature both in the 'Silva' and in this Manual, and not favoring the splitting up of certain species, we are far from withholding hearty praise to the industry which has brought this mass of materials together, and to the marvellous skill of the artist, who has given to all the sketches, more than six hundred in number, a delicacy and strength which belong to the very first order of illustration.

According to the classification now generally adopted by naturalists as exhibiting best the evolutionary relationships of vegetation, this volume begins with the Pines and their allies, close cousins to the Ferns and their kindred. Then come the Palms and the Yuccas. From these we pass to the Walnuts, Willows, Birches, Beeches, Oaks, and Elms, concerning all of which the amateur desires to know much both in summer and in winter. In the new classification of plants, known as Engler's, and here used as the basis, one comes next to the Magnolias, Sassafras, Witch-hazel, and Plane-trees. And now we are brought face to face with the groups which will cause much perplexity among the students of this treatise, namely, the Thorns. The genus *Crataegus*, the common Hawthorn, everywhere known for its fine foliage, handsome flowers, and richly colored fruits, is here made to pay the penalty of its caprice. Many of the species are extremely variable, diverse characters appearing sometimes on the same plant. Doubtless writers have hitherto been too conservative, making fewer species than this polymorphic genus is entitled to; but one shudders at the thought that the genus as represented in North America (exclusive of Mexico) is here divided into 131 species, to all of which names have been given, for which de-

scriptions have been made, and illustrations drawn. A fate worse than that which has befallen the genus *Rubus* (the Bramble), at the hands of certain botanists in the Old World, has befallen our hawthorns. It is to be feared that our amateur botanists will now treat the hawthorns as Old-World botanists treat the brambles, namely, they will let them alone, since the identification of species based on very minute characters is hardly more attractive as a branch of study than the matching of patterns anywhere. One thing, however, is brought out clearly by such a presentation of slight characters in a genus—the point of view is everything. Otherwise it would not be possible that the genus *Crataegus*, when reviewed in Engler's 'Pflanzenfamilien,' should be credited with only forty species for the whole world, and should, besides, have its identity lost by being merged with another genus, *Mespilus*. In the Manual, the genus not only preserves its individuality as a genus, but is stated to contain within the limits mentioned more than one hundred and thirty species.

It is highly probable that in the genus *Crataegus* and the near of kin, the Brambles, we have some species *in the making*. Such mutations are attracting great attention in certain quarters, and deservedly: a minute trustworthy pictorial record of such changes and changings must have its value. To Mr. Faxon's unerring eye and pencil we owe such a record. It will be very interesting to see how many of these species will stand the test of the short period which will elapse before a second edition of the Manual is called for. It is noticeable that a few of the new species of *Crataegus* even recently described have fallen by the way, or perhaps have been assigned to other positions in the list. It is worthy of mention that a recent treatise on the Plants of the Southern States contains more than 180 species of *Crataegus* within those limits alone. This must be interpreted, we think, that, in the recognition of species, the personal equation as well as the point of view is an important factor.

The Italian in America. By Eliot Lord and others. New York: B. F. Buck & Co. 1905.

The authors of the above work have done a service to students of Italian immigration in bringing together in book form the data, statistics and information relating to Italians in the United States which have from time to time appeared in American magazines and reports. In this compilation, some parts are taken bodily from other works without citation of the sources or even the use of quotations marks. But the labors of others are here presented in logical sequence and in a sympathetic spirit, resulting in an interesting and readable book.

The design of it is stated in the preface to be to "present clearly the contribution of Italy to American development and citizenship." In fact, however, the compilers do not and cannot carry out such purpose. It is too early to examine the effects of Italian immigration on our country; all that can be done is, as is here actually done, to present the ethnic and historical antecedents of the Italian, which are certainly in his favor, and to study what the Italian immigrant has been doing

here in the twenty-five years since his advent. Some popular fallacies in the mouths of people who ought to know better, such as the assumption that the influx from Italy is affecting racial character, are ably exposed. But the popular ignorance regarding the stranger within our gates seems so ingrained that it is doubtful if even the mass of evidence gathered in this book will convert the unconvertible. The protectionist tendencies of the nation undoubtedly affect public opinion regarding immigration. "America for Americans" is still the favorite phrase, and no amount of proof of the desirability of foreign recruits, such as is presented in this book, will affect preconceived opinions.

Mr. Eliot Lord's chapters on "The Flow of Emigration" and "The Inheritance and Progress of United Italy" are forcibly written. On the other hand, "Causes and Regulation of Italian Emigration" is a rather feeble summary of the existing Italian Emigration law and its application. The causes of the drifting of Italians to our cities are sufficiently explained, and the success of certain experiments in agricultural colonization interestingly set forth. But one looks in vain for an answer to the really vital query, "How can the Italian migratory current be turned towards the country?" The success of the Italian agricultural colonies at Independence (La.), Bryan (Tex.), Greenville, (Miss.), Vineland (N. J.), and Asti (Cal.), is given undue importance and a misleading significance. These colonies represent a class of immigrants different from the great mass of their countrymen who come here. The latter, it is true, are peasants, but peasants without means to speak of, and looking for work which will yield immediate profit. To expect these to buy land, even on the most generous terms, and to wait till the first crop for profits, is to misunderstand the character of such immigration. This fact seems to have escaped our authors,

and their work is silent on this, the most pressing and important question. When they affirm that the real problem is one of distribution rather than of restriction, they only restate the question in different terms. What we must know is how to obtain such distribution. We believe it is at present impossible through what might be called natural methods, both because the demand in the cities is still active, and because the demand from the country is not made sufficiently attractive. The New Orleans and Erwin lynchings of Italians have had a direct economic effect, for it will be long before Italians will care to take chances in what they still think "a wild section." The book is lacking in another essential—a study of the second generation of Italian immigrants. That generation has done enough already to deserve attention, and would be a fairer and safer test of the desirability of Italian, or of any other, immigration. Mr. Barrows's chapter on "Pauperism, Disease, and Crime" is a noteworthy contribution, from a most competent source, to a subject about which there is both confusion and prejudice.

The book is not free from dubious assertions, such as that the Italian Government "is moving vigorously for the protection" of its forests, or that the Ministry of the Interior is directly interested in the application of the Italian Emigration law. Likewise one might challenge the statement that "the organization for self or co-operative help is now widespread" among Italians here, or that "the innate bent of the Italian for politics is, in truth, strongly marked, and nowhere is this more plainly shown than in America." The last chapter, on "Privileges and Duties of Italian American Citizenship," is rather meaningless except as a poor example of spread-eagle Americanism. It bears evidence of the best intentions, but breathes a spirit of "benevolent assimilation" in striking contrast to, if not in contradiction of, that

of the preceding chapter on "Progressive Education and Assimilation."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Anderson, Edward L., and Price Collier. Riding and Driving. Macmillan Co. \$2 net.
 Austin, Mary. Isidor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
 Barry, Richard. Port Arthur. Moffat, Yard & Co. \$1.50 net.
 Berenson, Bernard. Lorenzo Lotto. New ed. Macmillan Co. \$2.50.
 Branch, Anna Hempstead. The Shoes that Dance, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.10.
 Brenholts, Edwin Arnold. The Recording Angel. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. \$1.
 Champlin, John Denison. The Young Folks' Cyclopaedia of Natural History. Henry Holt & Co. \$2.50.
 Coryat, Thomas. Coryat's Crudities. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. \$6.50 per set.
 Cunningham, W. The Growth of English Industry and Commerce. Fourth ed. Macmillan Co.
 Curry, Charles Emerson. Electromagnetic Theory of Light. Part I. Macmillan Co.
 Devins, John Bancroft. An Observer in the Philippines. American Tract Society. \$2.
 Gardiner Greene Hubbard Collection of Engravings. Compiled by Arthur J. Parsons. Washington.
 Ghent, W. J. Mass and Class. Macmillan Co.
 Henderson, C. Hanford. The Children of Good Fortune. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.30 net.
 Hunter, Robert. Poverty. Macmillan Co.
 Jacobi, Charles Thomas. Printing. Macmillan Co.
 Kinnear, Georgina. The Use of Words. Dutton. 35 cents net.
 Kiser, S. E. Charles the Chauffeur. F. A. Stokes Co. \$1.
 Kropotkin, P. Russian Literature. McClure, Phillips & Co. \$2 net.
 Lee, Vernon. The Enchanted Woods. John Lane. \$1.25 net.
 Lefevre, Edwin. The Golden Flood. McClure, Phillips & Co.
 Mason, A. E. W. The Four Feathers. Macmillan Co. 25 cents.
 McKechnie, William S. Magna Carta. Macmillan Co.
 Myers, Philip Van Ness. Medieval and Modern History. Revised edition. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.50.
 Paul, Herbert. A History of Modern England. Vol. III. Macmillan Co. \$2.50 net.
 Pellissier, Georges. Etudes de Littérature et de Morale. Paris: Edouard Cornély & Cie.
 Rambaud, Alfred, and others. The Case of Russia. Fox, Duffield & Co. \$1.25 net.
 Schultz, Arthur. Elementary Algebra. Macmillan Co. \$1.10 net.
 Sedgwick, Adam. A Student's Text-Book of Zoology. Macmillan Co.
 Stearns, Frank Preston. Cambridge Sketches. Philadelphia: Lippincott. \$1.50 net.
 St. John, Keith. Three Gifts. New Haven: Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co.
 Thayer, William Roscoe. A Short History of Venice. Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.
 Tuckwell, W. Reminiscences of a Radical Parson. Cassell & Co. \$2.
 Watson, W. H. Juggernaut. Davenport, Ia.: Investigation Committee. \$1.
 Weir, Harrison. The Poultry Book. 3 vols. Doubleday, Page & Co.

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